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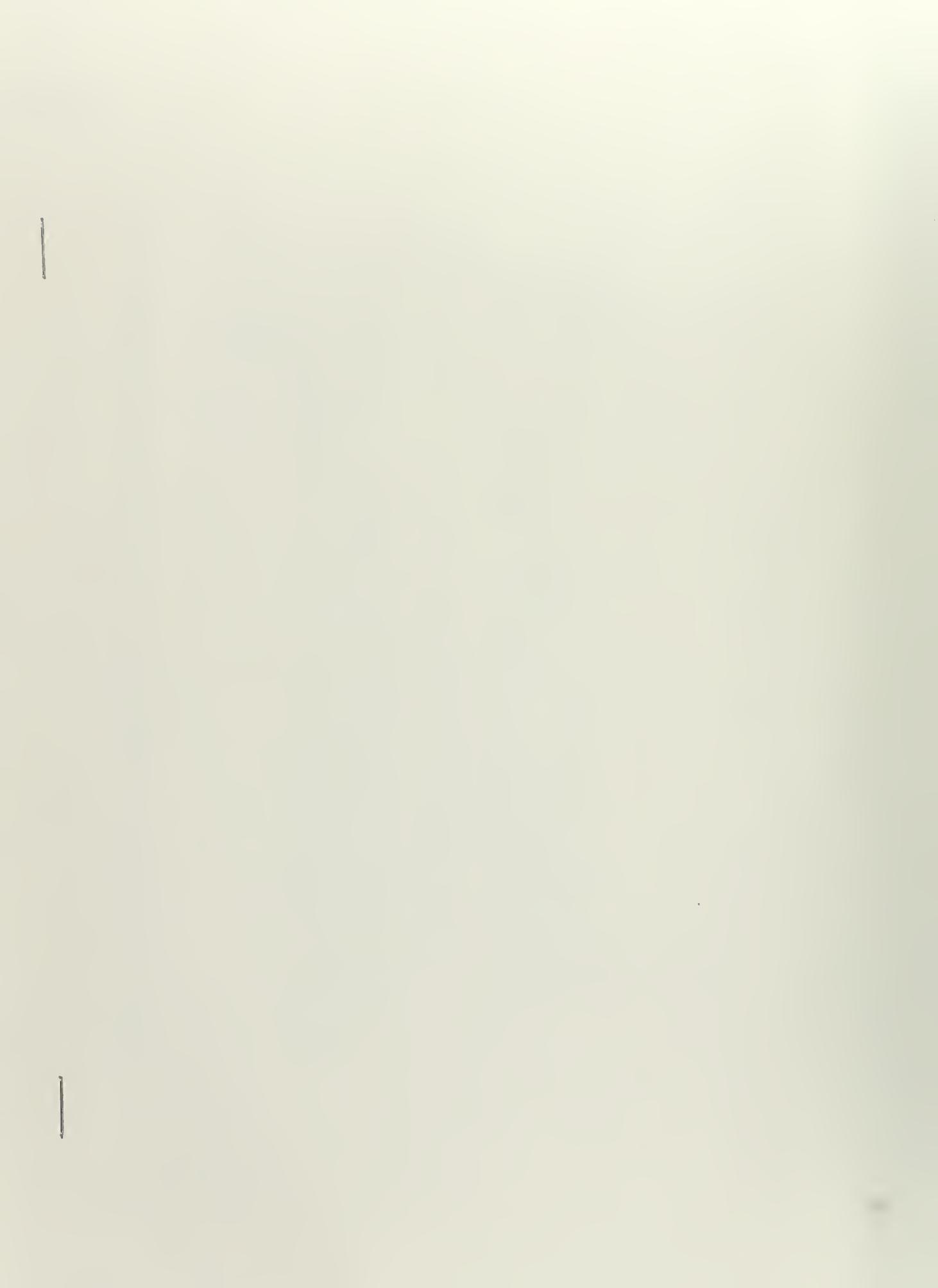
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A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF DISCRETE TIME
FILTERING FOR A NON-STATIONARY RANDOM INPUT

HAROLD GROVE FLETCHER



A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF DISCRETE TIME FILTERING
FOR A NON-STATIONARY RANDOM INPUT

by

Harold Grove Fletcher, Jr.
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B.S., United States Coast Guard Academy, 1961

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE IN ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING

from the

NAVAL POSTGRADUATE SCHOOL
December 1967

NPS ARCHIVE

1967

FLETCHER, H.

~~THESIS~~
~~FOR~~
~~DOCTOR~~
ABSTRACT

This thesis is concerned with a comparative study of discrete time filters using the theories of Wiener-Kolmogorov, Bode-Shannon, and Kalman, applied to the filtering of a non-stationary random signal in the presence of measurement noise. Programs are developed for the simulation of these systems and signals on a digital computer. Their filtering properties are compared for a random input signal with known steady state characteristics, starting at initial time $t = t_0$. The results show that when the gain of the Kalman filter is equal to its steady state value, the Kalman and Wiener-Kolmogorov filters perform identically. For large initial errors the Kalman filter, with large initial gain, gives the best transient response; for small initial errors the Kalman and Wiener-Kolmogorov filters are essentially equivalent in their transient responses.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I wish to take this opportunity to express my appreciation for the assistance and encouragement given me by Dr. Sydney R. Parker in the writing of this thesis.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1. OBJECTIVE

This thesis examines and compares several techniques for the filtering of random signals in the presence of measurement noise. In diagram form, the problem is as shown in Figure 1; $x(t)$ is the random signal to be estimated, $v(t)$ is a random measurement noise, $\hat{x}(t)$ is the estimated or filtered signal, and $e(t)$ is the error in estimation. The criteria for the optimum filter is one which reduces the mean square error to a minimum. The following techniques are studied and compared with a common example:

- (1) Discrete Wiener-Kolmogorov filter
- (2) Discrete Kalman filter
- (3) Bode-Shannon discrete time filter

For all of the filters it is assumed that the statistical properties of the signal and the noise are known by their correlation functions, or their power density spectra, or by equivalent white noise excited dynamic models. It is also assumed that the signal and the measurement noise are uncorrelated. Wiener-Kolmogorov theory assumes that the signal and the noise are stationary; that is, their statistical properties do not vary with time. This implies that all signals are initiated at $t = -\infty$. Kalman and Bode-Shannon filtering, on the other hand, assume that signals start at some initial time, t_0 , and that as time progresses the stationary probability characteristics of the signals are established. In addition, Kalman (as

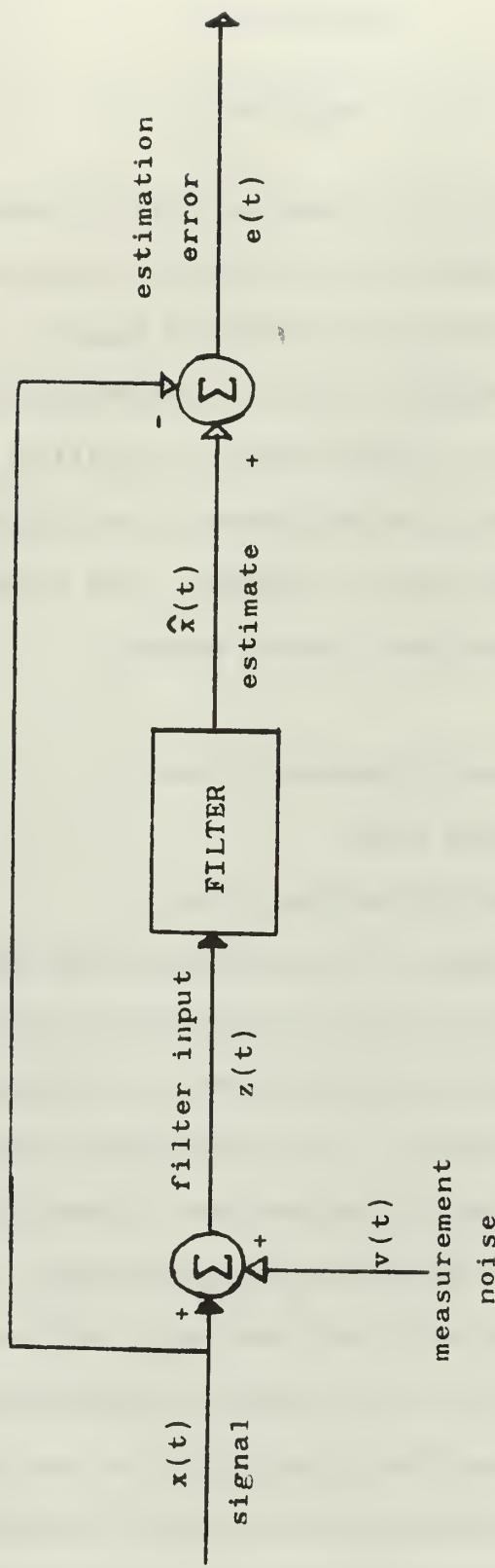


FIGURE 1

BASIC FILTER PROBLEM

well as Bode-Shannon) assumes that the random signal process is Markovian, that is, can be thought of as generated by a linear dynamic system excited by white noise.* During the transient stage, from $t = t_0$ until the statistical properties are established, the Kalman and Bode-Shannon filters behave as time-varying devices. In the steady state, all of the filters can be expected to behave identically since they each establish a minimum mean square error estimate.

In order to test and compare the operation of these filters, particularly for a non-stationary input, the Wiener-Kolmogorov and Kalman filters have been designed for discrete time simulation on a digital computer for filtering the same random input signal and measurement noise. The output of each filter and the actual random input signal have been compared starting at time $t = t_0$ until steady state conditions are established.

The type of filtering problem studied can be compared with a basic tracking problem where a target, with statistically known maneuvering properties, suddenly appears. It is desired to track the target and, in particular, to investigate how long it takes the output to reach the steady state minimum mean squared error. The results of this investigation are presented in this thesis together with a summary of pertinent background theory. In addition, the discrete time formulations for the Wiener-Kolmogorov theory have been developed and programmed for the specific example treated.

*R. E. Kalman, New Methods and Results in Linear Prediction and Estimation Theory, Technical Report No. 61-1, (Baltimore, Maryland: Research Institute for Advanced Study, 1961) p. 3.

The basic theory for discrete Kalman and Bode-Shannon filtering appears in the literature and has been adapted to the example. Programs necessary for generating the stochastic signals from white noise have also been developed.

2. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

The many present day theories for the filtering of time sequences are basically derived from the original work of Wiener and Kolmogorov published in 1941 and 1942.^{2,14,17} They obtained the direct solution of the filter problem independently and simultaneously by the use of the calculus of variations. This approach led to the filter's impulse response being characterized by the solution of a difficult integral equation known as the Wiener-Hopf equation.

One of the next major developments in the solution of the filtering problem was accomplished by Bode and Shannon^{2,17} in 1950 with the simplification of the derivation of the Wiener-Kolmogorov filter. They used frequency domain analysis and conventional circuit theory concepts to interpret mathematical operations in physically intuitive terms. Bode and Shannon also applied this frequency domain technique to discrete signals with constant sampling intervals.

In most cases, the solution of the Wiener-Hopf integral equation is a formidable task. With the advent of the digital computer, an alternate approach was sought to avoid this difficulty. In 1960 Kalman^{9,10,11} and Bucy¹¹ attacked the filtering problem from the state variable point of view. They evolved a set of differential

equations, equivalent to the Wiener-Hopf integral equation, whose solution yields the optimum filter. These differential equations may be synthesized in a sequential fashion and therefore digital computer solutions easily obtained.

CHAPTER II

THE WIENER-KOLMOGOROV FILTER

There are several methods for deriving the continuous Wiener-Kolmogorov filter. Appendix A summarizes the solution which leads to the Wiener-Hopf integral equation. [#]

$$\varphi_{zx}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H(\tau) \varphi_{zz}(t - \tau) d\tau, \quad t \geq 0 \quad (2.1)$$

$H(\tau)$ is the desired filter impulse response, $\varphi_{zz}(t)$ is the autocorrelation function of the signal plus noise, and $\varphi_{zx}(t)$ is the crosscorrelation function of the signal plus noise, and the signal.

The requirements that must be fulfilled to use Eq. 2.1 are

(1) that all signals are stationary and exist for all time; (2) that the signal and the noise are uncorrelated. In order to solve the equation, the autocorrelation function of the signal and the autocorrelation function of the noise must be known. These may be obtained by taking the Fourier transform of the respective power spectral densities, as given by the Wiener-Khintchine equations: ^{*}

$$W_x(\omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \varphi_{xx}(\tau) e^{-j\omega\tau} d\tau = \frac{1}{2\pi} \mathcal{F} \left[\varphi_{xx}(\tau) \right]$$

[#]George C. Newton, Jr., Leonard A. Gould, and James F. Kaiser, Analytical Design of Linear Feedback Controls (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1957) p. 144.

^{*}John L. Stewart, Fundamentals of Signal Theory (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1960) p. 306.

$$\varphi_{xx}(\tau) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} W_x(\omega) e^{+j\omega\tau} d\omega = 2\pi \mathcal{F}^{-1} \left[W_x(\omega) \right]$$

where $W_x(\omega)$ is the power density spectrum of $x(t)$. Even when sufficient knowledge of the signal is available, the solution of Eq. 2.1 is generally an extremely difficult task.

1. SOLUTION BY SPECTRUM FACTORIZATION

The solution of Eq. 2.1 using the technique known as spectrum factorization has been developed by several authors.^{2,14,17} The autocorrelation function of the signal plus noise, $\varphi_{zz}(s)$, is factored so that

$$\varphi_{zz}(s) = \varphi_{zz}^+(s) \varphi_{zz}^-(s) \quad (2.1-1)$$

where $\varphi_{zz}^+(s)$ contains those factors of $\varphi_{zz}(s)$ which have poles and zeros in the left half plane. The term

$$\left[\frac{\varphi_{zx}(s)}{\varphi_{zz}^-(s)} \right] + \quad (2.1-2a)$$

is defined by those terms of the partial fraction expansion of:

$$\frac{\varphi_{zx}(s)}{\varphi_{zz}^-(s)}$$

which have poles in the left half of the s-plane. That is

$$\frac{\varphi_{zx}}{\varphi_{zz}^-} = \left[\frac{\varphi_{zx}(s)}{\varphi_{zz}^-(s)} \right]_+ + \left[\frac{\varphi_{zx}(s)}{\varphi_{zz}^-(s)} \right]_- \quad (2.1-2b)$$

The resulting weighting or transfer function of the filter is given by:

$$H(s) = \frac{\left[\frac{\varphi_{zx}(s)}{\varphi_{zz}(s)} \right]}{\varphi_{zx}(s)} + \quad (2.1-3)$$

The use of this equation may be demonstrated by the example shown in Figure 1. Consider that $x(t)$ has an autocorrelation function:

$$\varphi_{xx}(\tau) = \frac{1}{2} e^{-|\tau|} \quad (2.1-4)$$

The Laplace transform of the autocorrelation function is then

$$\varphi_{xx}(s) = \frac{1}{1 - s^2} \quad (2.1-5)$$

which yields the power density spectrum,

$$W_x(\omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \left[\frac{1}{1 + \omega^2} \right] \quad (2.1-6)$$

This signal can be shown to correspond to the random walk signal shown in Figure 2, where $x(t)$ is a rectangular wave with values $+\frac{1}{4}$ or $-\frac{1}{4}$ and with zero crossings located at event points which are Poisson distributed with an average frequency of $\frac{1}{2}$ crossings per second. This time domain signal is not unique since many signals may have the same power density spectrum.

Now consider a white noise source where,

$$\varphi_{vv}(\tau) = \delta(\tau) \quad (2.1-7)$$

where $\delta(\tau)$ is the Dirac delta function, which has the following Laplace transform:

$$\varphi_{vv}(s) = 1 \quad (2.1-8)$$

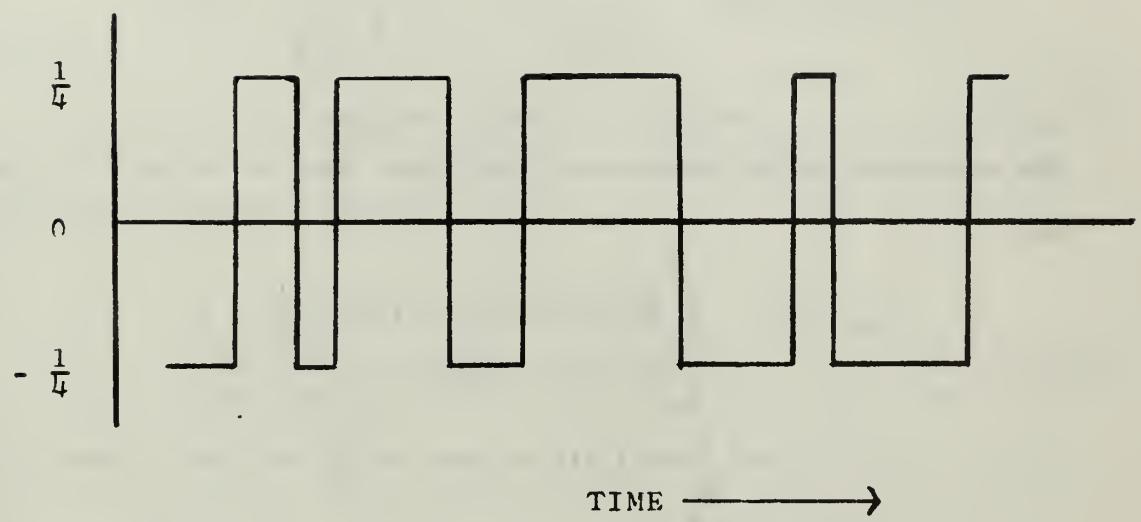


FIGURE 2

RANDOM WALK SIGNAL

The autocorrelation function of the signal plus noise is

$$\varphi_{zz}(s) = \varphi_{xx}(s) + \varphi_{vv}(s) + \varphi_{vx}(s) + \varphi_{xv}(s) \quad (2.1-9)$$

Since the signal and noise are assumed to be uncorrelated the last two terms are zero and $\varphi_{zz}(s)$ reduces to:

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi_{zz}(s) &= \varphi_{xx}(s) + \varphi_{vv}(s) \\ &= \frac{1}{1 - s^2} + 1 = \frac{2 - s^2}{1 - s^2} \end{aligned} \quad (2.1-10)$$

The crosscorrelation function of the signal plus noise, and the signal is:

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi_{zx}(\tau) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (v(t) + x(t)) x(t + \tau) dt \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} v(t) x(t + \tau) dt + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) x(t + \tau) dt \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) x(t + \tau) dt = \varphi_{xx}(\tau) \end{aligned} \quad (2.1-11)$$

Since the noise and the signal are uncorrelated,

$$\varphi_{zx}(s) = \frac{1}{1 - s^2} \quad (2.1-12)$$

Factoring Eq. 2.1-10 results in:

$$\varphi_{zz}(s) = \frac{2 - s^2}{1 - s^2} = \frac{(\sqrt{2} + s)(\sqrt{2} - s)}{(1 + s)(1 - s)} \quad (2.1-13)$$

Therefore, from Eq. 2.1-1,

$$\varphi_{zz}^+(s) = \frac{\sqrt{2+s}}{1+s}$$

and,

$$\varphi_{zz}^-(s) = \frac{\sqrt{2-s}}{1-s}$$

Now,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\varphi_{zx}(s)}{\varphi_{zz}^-(s)} &= \frac{1}{1-s^2} \cdot \frac{1-s}{(\sqrt{2-s})} = \frac{1}{(1+s)(\sqrt{2-s})} \\ &= \frac{1}{2.414} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2-s}} + \frac{1}{1+s} \right) \end{aligned} \quad (2.1-14)$$

Therefore, from Eq. 2.1-2a,

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} \varphi_{zx}(s) \\ \varphi_{zz}^-(s) \end{array} \right]_+ = \frac{1}{2.414} \left(\begin{array}{c} 1 \\ 1+s \end{array} \right) \quad (2.1-15)$$

Substituting into Eq. 2.1-3,

$$\begin{aligned} H(s) &= \frac{1}{2.414} \left(\begin{array}{c} 1 \\ 1+s \end{array} \right) \left(\begin{array}{c} 1 \\ \sqrt{2+s} \end{array} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2.414} \left(\begin{array}{c} 1 \\ \sqrt{2+s} \end{array} \right) \end{aligned} \quad (2.1-16)$$

The resulting filter weighting function, or impulse response, is:

$$H(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2.414} e^{-\sqrt{2}t}, & t \geq 0 \\ 0, & t < 0 \end{cases} \quad (2.1-17)$$

This filter is physically realizable, since it is causal.

2. THE BODE-SHANNON SOLUTION

The frequency domain technique for the Wiener-Kolmogorov filter as developed by Bode and Shannon,[#] is to convert the signal power spectral density to that of white noise, and then have a filter operate on this white noise. The development of this technique appears in several references^{2,14,17} and is discussed in Appendix B. The following results are obtained.

Given $W_x(\omega)$, the power spectral density of the signal $x(t)$; and $W_v(\omega)$, the power spectral density of the noise $v(t)$, consider the transfer function of the following minimum phase (zeros and poles in the left half of the s -plane) filter:

$$B(\omega) = \sqrt{W_x(\omega) + W_v(\omega)} \quad (2.2-1)$$

From a white noise input this filter will produce a power spectral density equal to that of the signal plus noise. As shown in Appendix B, the following transfer function can then be obtained for the non-causal optimal filter.

$$h_\omega(\omega) = \frac{W_x(\omega) B(\omega)}{[W_x(\omega) + W_v(\omega)]} \quad (2.2-2)$$

The preceding equations are represented in Figure 3. Since $h_\omega(\omega)$ is non-causal, let

[#]Ralph J. Schwarz and Bernard Friedland, Linear Systems (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1965), p. 334-45.

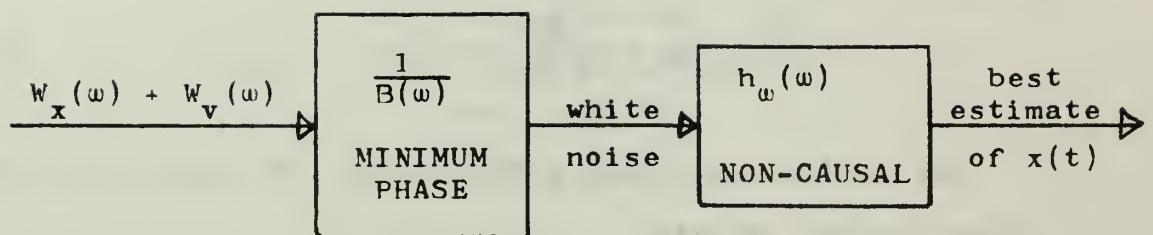


FIGURE 3

BODE-SHANNON THEORY

$$g_{\omega}(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & , t < 0 \\ h_{\omega}(t) & , t \geq 0 \end{cases} \quad (2.2-3)$$

where $g_{\omega}(t)$ represents the portion of $h_{\omega}(t)$ which exists for $t \geq 0$.

This is equivalent to the spectral factorization of Eq. 2.1-1 and Eq. 2.1-2a. The desired optimum causal filter has the transfer function

$$H(\omega) = \frac{G_{\omega}(\omega)}{B(\omega)} \quad (2.2-4)$$

Now consider the example problem again. The signal, $x(t)$, has a power spectral density

$$W_x(\omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \left[\frac{1}{1 + \omega^2} \right] \quad (2.2-5)$$

and the uncorrelated measurement noise is white, with a power spectral density

$$W_v(\omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \quad (2.2-6)$$

The power spectral density of the signal plus noise is therefore

$$W_z(\omega) = W_x(\omega) + W_v(\omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \left[\frac{1}{1 + \omega^2} + 1 \right] = \frac{1}{2\pi} \left[\frac{2 + \omega^2}{1 + \omega^2} \right] \quad (2.2-7)$$

This may be factored

$$W_z(\omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{(\sqrt{2} + j\omega)}{(1 + j\omega)} \frac{(\sqrt{2} - j\omega)}{(1 - j\omega)} \quad (2.2-8)$$

Thus, the minimum phase transfer function required to produce this spectrum from white noise, using Eq. 2.2-1, is:

$$B(\omega) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \frac{\sqrt{2} + j\omega}{1 + j\omega} \quad (2.2-9)$$

The inverse of this transfer function will produce white noise from the signal plus noise.

Now, substituting in Eq. 2.2-2,

$$\begin{aligned}
 h_\omega(\omega) &= \frac{\frac{1}{2\pi} \left(\frac{1}{1 + \omega^2} \right) \left(\frac{\sqrt{2} + j\omega}{1 + j\omega} \right)}{\frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{2 + \omega^2}{1 + \omega^2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \\
 &= \frac{\sqrt{2} + j\omega}{(2 + \omega^2)(1 + j\omega)} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \\
 &= \frac{1}{(\sqrt{2} - j\omega)(1 + j\omega)} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \\
 &= \frac{1}{2.414 \sqrt{2\pi}} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2} - j\omega} + \frac{1}{1 + j\omega} \right) \quad (2.2-10)
 \end{aligned}$$

By taking the inverse Fourier transform of Eq. 2.2-10, the impulse response, or weighting function, is then

$$h_\omega(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \frac{1}{2.414} e^{\sqrt{2} t} & , t < 0 \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \frac{1}{2.414} e^{-t} & , t \geq 0 \end{cases} \quad (2.2-11)$$

which is non-causal. The best causal impulse response, from Eq. 2.2-3, is

$$g_{\omega}(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & , t < 0 \\ \sqrt{\frac{1}{2\pi}} \cdot \frac{1}{2.414} e^{-t} & , t \geq 0 \end{cases} \quad (2.2-12)$$

The desired impulse response is therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} H(\omega) &= \frac{G_{\omega}(\omega)}{B(\omega)} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \left(\frac{1}{2.414} \right) \left(\frac{1}{1 + j\omega} \right) \left(\frac{1 + j\omega}{\sqrt{2 + j\omega}} \right) \sqrt{2\pi} \\ &= \frac{1}{2.414} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2 + j\omega}} \end{aligned}$$

and

$$H(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & , t < 0 \\ \frac{1}{2.414} e^{-\sqrt{2}t} & , t \geq 0 \end{cases} \quad (2.2-13)$$

This filter impulse response is identical to Eq. 2.1-17, as expected.

3. DISCRETE TIME SOLUTION OF THE WIENER-KOLMOGOROV FILTER

The initial problem to be solved for digital computer simulation of the Wiener-Kolmogorov filter is the realization of the discrete signal, $x(kT)$, based on the required power spectral density

$$W_x(\omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \left[\frac{1}{1 + \omega^2} \right] \quad (2.3-1)$$

Since the power density spectrum of white noise is a constant, this power spectral density may be obtained by driving a linear system, $G_1(j\omega)$, by white noise, $w(t)$, so that

$$W_x(\omega) = G_1(j\omega) \quad G_1(-j\omega) \quad W_w(\omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \left[\frac{1}{1 + \omega^2} \right] \quad (2.3-2)$$

where

$$G_1(j\omega) = \frac{1}{1 + j\omega}$$

It is extremely difficult, if not impossible, to obtain a discrete white noise source which is flat over all frequency. In practice, what needs to be done is to make the spectrum of the noise source flat over the bandwidth of $G_1(j\omega)$. The 3 decibel cutoff frequency for $G_1(j\omega)$ is one radian per second. The effective noise bandpass is given by

$$B = \frac{\pi}{2} (1) = \frac{\pi}{2} \text{ radian/sec.} = 1/4 \text{ Hz.} \quad (2.3-3)$$

where noise bandwidth is $\frac{\pi}{2}$ times the 3 decibel cutoff frequency.*

The sampling rate for the discrete noise should be much greater than 1/4 Hz., and 100 Hz. was chosen as convenient. The sampling period, T , therefore is 0.01 seconds. The spectrum of the noise should then be flat to 50 Hz. as shown in Figure 4.

The autocorrelation function of this band limited white noise is then given by

$$\varphi_{ww}(\tau) = \frac{100 \sin(100\pi\tau)}{100\pi\tau} \quad (2.3-4)$$

as shown in Figure 5. The variance of $w(t)$, the noise sequence, is given by

$$\varphi_{ww}(0) = \sigma_w^2 = 100 = \frac{1}{T} \quad (2.3-5)$$

* Mischa Schwartz, Information Transmission, Modulation, and Noise (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1959), pp. 206-207.

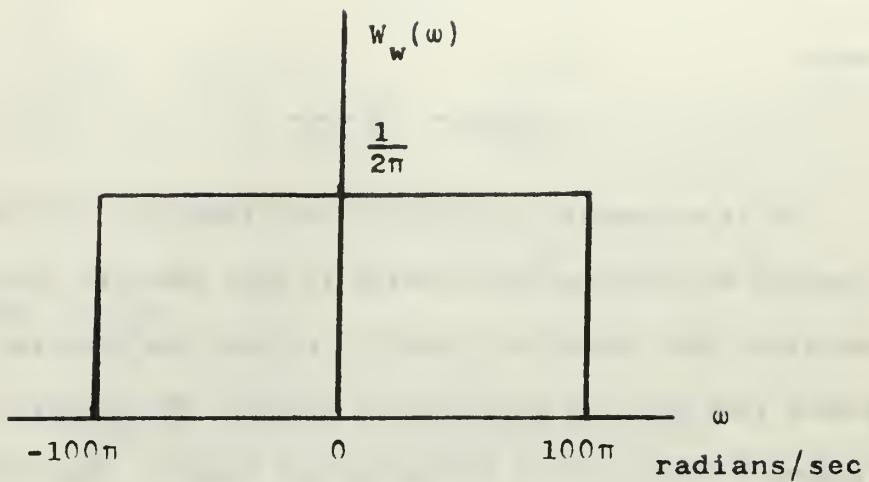


FIGURE 4
WHITE NOISE SPECTRUM

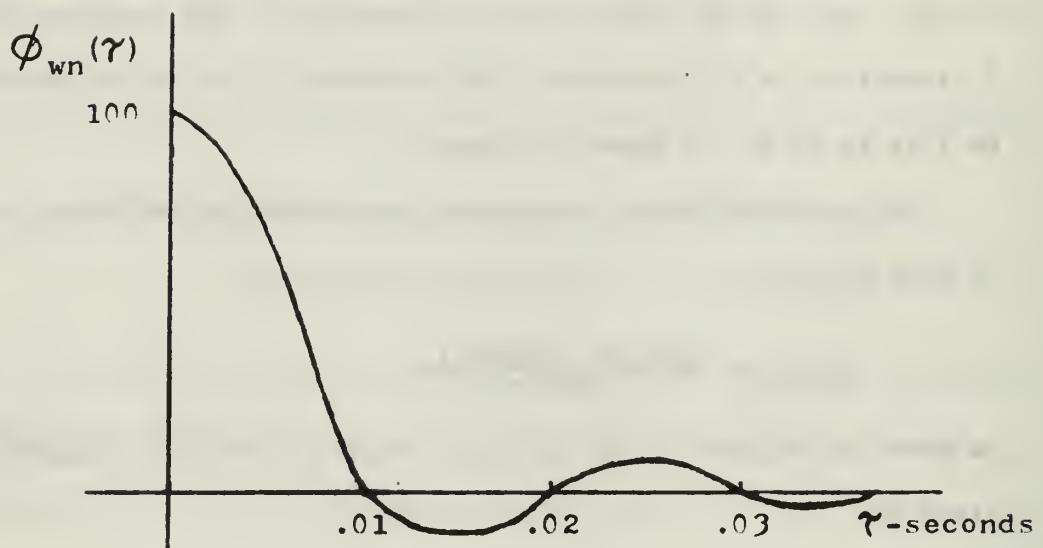


FIGURE 5
AUTOCORRELATION OF WHITE NOISE SOURCE

The white noise source is then simulated by a series of pulses of repetition period .01 seconds, whose amplitudes have a Gaussian distribution with zero mean and variance 100, followed by a zero order hold as shown in Figure 6. The recursive equation necessary for the computer simulation of the desired signal source is derived by taking the Z transform of the input-output transfer function of Figure 6.

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{x(z)}{w(z)} &= z \left[\left(\frac{1}{s + 1} \right) \left(\frac{1 - e^{-sT}}{s} \right) \right] \\ &= \frac{1 - e^{-T}}{z - e^{-T}}\end{aligned}\quad (2.3-6)$$

Hence

$$x(z) (z - e^{-T}) = w(z) (1 - e^{-T})$$

and

$$zx(z) = x(z)e^{-T} + w(z) (1 - e^{-T})$$

Therefore,

$$x(k + 1) = e^{-T}x(k) + (1 - e^{-T}) w(k); \quad T = .01 \text{ sec.} \quad (2.3-7)$$

To check that the signal does, in fact, have the desired power spectral density, a subroutine entitled HARM[#] was used to obtain the Fast Fourier Transform. The Fourier coefficients were then squared and plotted versus radian frequency, and the graph, Figure 7, obtained. Included on this graph is the desired power spectral density curve.

[#] International Business Machines Corporation, System /360 Scientific Subroutine Package, (360A-CM-03X) Version II Programmer's Manual, (White Plains, New York: International Business Machines Corporation, 1967)

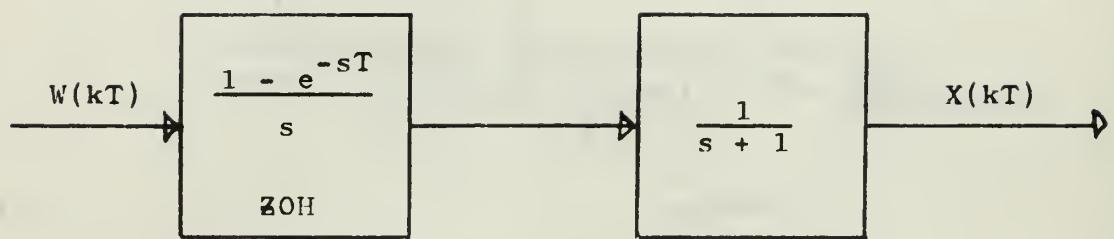
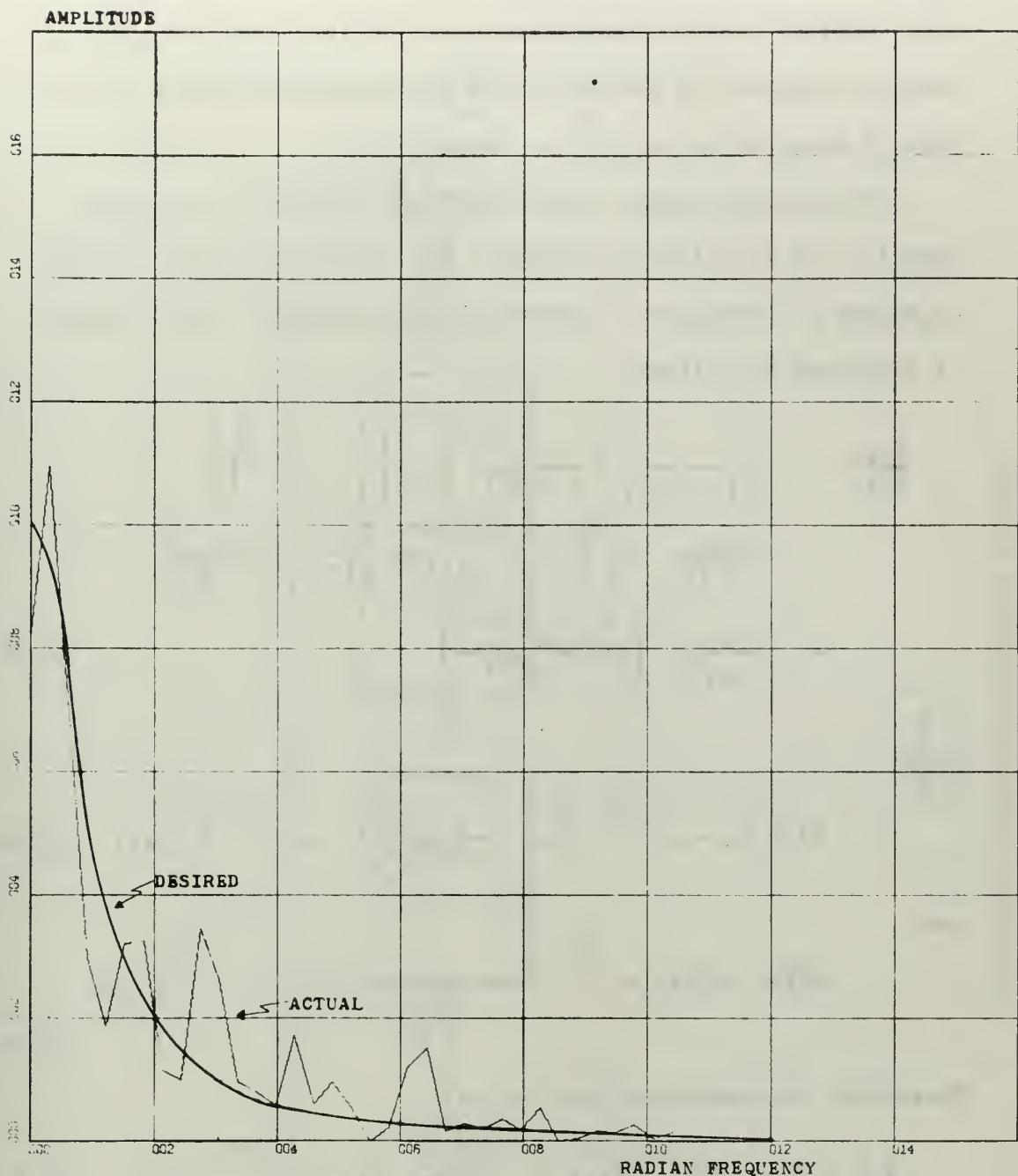


FIGURE 6

SIGNAL SOURCE



γ -SCALE=2.00E+00 UNITS INCH.

γ -SCALE=2.00E-01 UNITS INCH.

P. S. D. OF SIGNAL GENERATOR
 $T=0.01$ FLETCHER H.G. THESIS

FIGURE 7

The program was run for 2048 samples and it can be seen that the power density spectrum approximates the desired spectrum. The computer program for generating the signal and checking its power density spectrum is included as Appendix C.

Now that the proper signal has been obtained, a recursive equation for the filter is needed. The filtering system is drawn in Figure 8. Using the Z transform, the recursive filter equation is developed as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{\hat{x}(z)}{z(z)} &= z \left[\left(\frac{1}{1 + \sqrt{2}} \right) \left(\frac{1}{s + \sqrt{2}} \right) \left(\frac{1}{s} \right) \left(1 - e^{-sT} \right) \right] \\
 &= \frac{1}{1 + \sqrt{2}} z \left[\left(1 - e^{-sT} \right) \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right) \left(\frac{1}{s} - \frac{1}{s + \sqrt{2}} \right) \right] \\
 &= \frac{1}{2 + \sqrt{2}} \left(\frac{1 - e^{-\sqrt{2}T}}{z - e^{-\sqrt{2}T}} \right) \tag{2.3-8}
 \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\hat{x}(z) \left(z - e^{-\sqrt{2}T} \right) = \frac{1}{2 + \sqrt{2}} \left(1 - e^{-\sqrt{2}T} \right) z(z) \tag{2.3-9}$$

and

$$z\hat{x}(z) = \hat{x}(z) e^{-\sqrt{2}T} + \frac{1}{2 + \sqrt{2}} \left(1 - e^{-\sqrt{2}T} \right) z(z) \tag{2.3-10}$$

Therefore, the recursive equation is:

$$\hat{x}(k+1) = e^{-\sqrt{2}T} \hat{x}(k) + \frac{1}{2 + \sqrt{2}} \left(1 - e^{-\sqrt{2}T} \right) z(k) \tag{2.3-11}$$

The error is

$$E(k) = \hat{x}(k) - x(k) \tag{2.3-12}$$

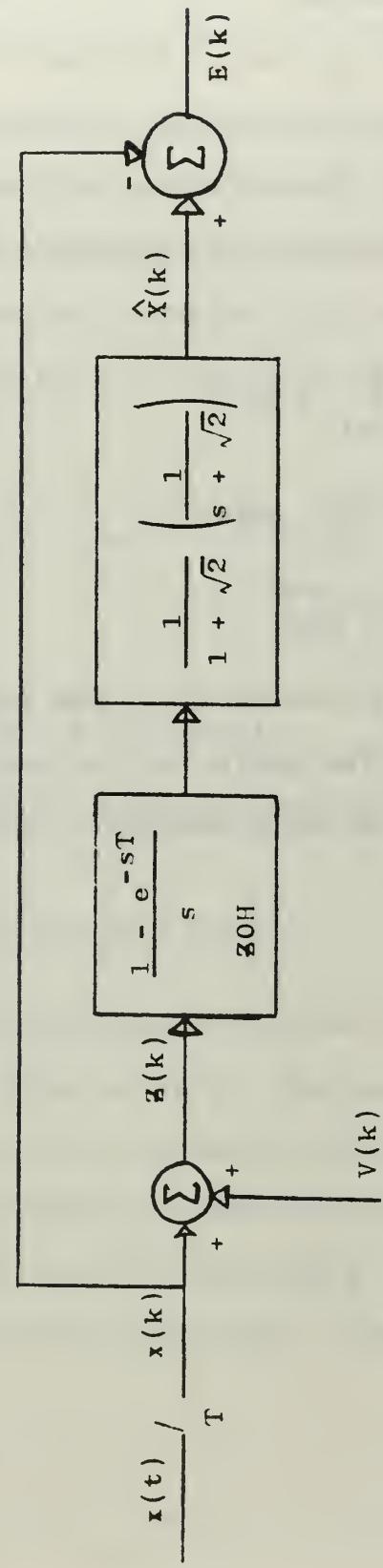


FIGURE 8

DISCRETE WIENER-KOLMOGOROV FILTER

The assumption is made that $\hat{X}(0)$ is zero. The sampling interval is 0.01 seconds. The measurement noise, $v(t)$, is white, with a power spectral density, $W_v(\omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi}$, and is developed in an identical fashion to $w(t)$, the driving noise for the signal generator. The two noise sources are uncorrelated. The mean square error and the variance of the error are then calculated, on a continuing basis, using the equations:

$$\overline{E(n)} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n E(k) \quad (2.3-13)$$

$$\overline{E(n)^2} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n (E(k))^2 \quad (2.3-14)$$

$$\sigma_e = \overline{E^2(k)} - \overline{E(k)}^2 \quad (2.3-15)$$

The computer run was for 30 seconds, i.e., 3000 samples, so that steady state is reached. The results are discussed in Chapter V. The computer program for the Wiener-Kolmogorov filter appears as Appendix D.

CHAPTER III

BODE-SHANNON DISCRETE TIME FILTERING

The Bode and Shannon frequency domain approach may be applied in the time domain directly, as developed by Schwarz and Friedland.¹⁷ The formulation is now in terms of summations, discrete signals, and discrete power spectral densities. This technique results in the following equation which is similar to the Wiener-Hopf integral equation.

$$\varphi_{zx}(k, n) = \sum_{j=0}^n h(n, j) \varphi_{zz}(j, k) \quad (3.1a)$$

$$k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$$

where

$$\varphi_{zx}(k, n) = E \left[z(k) x(n) \right] \quad (3.1b)$$

is the discrete crosscorrelation function between $z(k)$ and $x(n)$,

and

$$\varphi_{zz}(j, k) = E \left[z(j) z(k) \right] \quad (3.1c)$$

is the discrete autocorrelation function of $z(k)$. The unit impulse response of the filter is $h(n, j)$. The notation $h(n, j)$ denotes the response at time n due to an impulse applied at time j where $j \leq n$. Since the impulse response of the filter must be causal, this requires that $h(n, j)$ equal zero for n less than j . Equation 3.1 holds for both stationary and non-stationary signals. When the signals are stationary then

$$\varphi_{zx}(k, n) = \varphi_{zx}(n - k) \quad (3.2a)$$

$$\varphi_{zz}(j, k) = \varphi_{zz}(k - j) \quad (3.2b)$$

$$h(n, j) = h(n - j) \quad (3.2c)$$

and Eq. 3.1 reduces to

$$\varphi_{zx}(i) = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} h(m) \varphi_{zz}(m - i) \quad (3.2d)$$

where

$$i = n - k \quad \text{and} \quad m = n - j \quad (3.2e)$$

The power spectral density of a discrete signal, $z(kT)$, is defined as:^{*}

$$\begin{aligned} W_z'(z) &= T Z \left[\varphi_{zz}(nT) \right] \\ &= T \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \varphi_{zz}(nT) z^{-n} \end{aligned} \quad (3.3)$$

This is the discrete form of one of the Wiener-Khintchine equations.

The prime denotes the power spectral density of a discrete signal.

It should be noted that the z variable within the parenthesis denotes the Z -transform shifting variable. Proceeding as in Appendix B, a transfer function, $B(z)$, is developed which will convert a signal with a power spectral density of $W_z'(z)$ to a white noise process, $u(kT)$.

This requires that

$$B(z) B(z^{-1}) W_z'(z) = 1 \quad (3.4)$$

Since $B(z)$ is causal, its Z transform must be given by

$$B(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b(n) z^{-n} \quad (3.5)$$

^{*} Schwarz and Friedland¹⁷ use this definition. Kuo¹² uses a factor of $1/T$ instead of T .

If $W_z'(z)$ can be factored into a product,

$$W_z'(z) = \bar{W}_z(z) \bar{W}_z(z^{-1}) \quad (3.6)$$

then

$$B(z) = \frac{1}{\bar{W}_z(z)} \quad (3.7)$$

For a white noise input $\varphi_{uu}(j,k)$ equals $\delta(j,k)$, and Eq. 3.1 reduces to

$$\begin{cases} \varphi_{ux}(k,n) = h(n,j) & \text{for } j \leq n \\ \varphi_{ux}(k,n) = 0 & \text{for } j > n \end{cases} \quad (3.8)$$

The impulse response of an optimal causal filter for a white noise input, $u(kT)$, and a desired output, $X(kT)$, is then given by

$$g(n,j) = \varphi_{ux}(k,n) \quad (3.9)$$

For stationary processes Eq. 3.9 reduces to

$$g(m) = \varphi_{ux}(m) \quad \text{for } m = n - k > 0 \quad (3.10)$$

Taking the Z transform of Eq. 3.10, with the aid of Eq. 3.3, yields

$$g(z) = \left[\frac{W_{ux}'(z)}{T} \right]_c \quad (3.11)$$

where W_{ux}' is the cross power spectral density of the white noise, $u(kT)$, and the signal. The subscript c denotes the causal part of the transform (terms involving z^{-1}). However

$$W_{ux}'(z) = W_{zx}'(z) B(z^{-1}) \quad (3.12)$$

so that

$$g(z) = \left[\frac{W'_{zx}(z) B(z^{-1})}{T} \right]_c \quad (3.13)$$

The optimum filter is thus

$$\begin{aligned} H(z) &= G(z) B(z) \\ &= \left[\frac{W'_{zx}(z) B(z^{-1})}{T} \right]_c B(z) \end{aligned} \quad (3.14)$$

The procedure of taking "the causal part of" is analogous to the spectrum factorization done in Chapter II.

Using the above technique, the previous example is now solved for discrete time signals. The signal and noise correlation functions are

$$\varphi_{xx}(kT) = \frac{1}{2} e^{-|k|T} \quad (3.15)$$

$$\varphi_{vv}(kT) = \delta(k) \quad (3.16)$$

The sampled power spectral density of the signal may be obtained by means of Z transforms and is as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} W'_z(x) &= T Z \left[\frac{1}{2} e^{-|k|T} \right] \\ &= T \frac{1 - \epsilon^2}{(1 - \epsilon z^{-1})(1 - \epsilon z)} \end{aligned} \quad (3.17)$$

where ϵ equals e^{-T} . For the noise, the sampled power spectral density is

$$W'_v(z) = T \quad (3.18)$$

Therefore, the power spectral density of the signal plus noise input to the filter is

$$\begin{aligned} W'_z(z) &= W'_x(z) + W'_v(z) \\ &= T \frac{2 - \epsilon z^{-1} - \epsilon z}{(1 - \epsilon z^{-1})(1 - \epsilon z)} \end{aligned} \quad (3.19)$$

This may be written in the following manner for ease in factoring:

$$W_z'(z) = \frac{T\epsilon}{b} \frac{(1 - bz^{-1})(1 - bz)}{(1 - \epsilon z^{-1})(1 - \epsilon z)} \quad (3.20)$$

where

$$b = \frac{1 - \sqrt{1 - \epsilon^2}}{\epsilon} \quad (3.21)$$

The transfer function needed to produce white noise from the signal and noise input to the filter is then,

$$B(z) = \sqrt{b/\epsilon T} \left[\frac{1 - \epsilon z^{-1}}{1 - bz^{-1}} \right] = \frac{1}{\bar{W}_z(z)} \quad (3.22)$$

Since the signal and the noise are uncorrelated,

$$\varphi_{zx}(k) = \varphi_{xx}(k) \quad (3.23)$$

and

$$W_{zx}'(z) = W_x'(z) \quad (3.24)$$

Thus, from Eq. 3.13,

$$g(z) = \left[\frac{W_x'(z) B(z^{-1})}{T} \right]_c = \left[\frac{\frac{1 - \epsilon^2}{(1 - \epsilon z^{-1})(1 - \epsilon z)} \sqrt{b/\epsilon T} \frac{(1 - \epsilon z)}{(1 - bz)}}{c} \right] \quad (3.25)$$

Simplifying and taking the causal part yields

$$g(z) = \sqrt{b/\epsilon T} \frac{1 - \epsilon^2}{1 - bz} \frac{1}{1 - \epsilon z^{-1}} \quad (3.26)$$

The discrete time transfer function for the optimum filter is then

$$\begin{aligned} H(z) &= g(z) B(z) \\ &= \frac{b}{T\epsilon} \left(\frac{1 - \epsilon^2}{1 - bz} \right) \left(\frac{1}{1 - bz^{-1}} \right) \end{aligned} \quad (3.27)$$

The optimum filter diagram is shown in Figure 9. Since b , ϵ , and T are constants, $H(z)$ may be rewritten as:

$$H(z) = C \frac{1}{1 - bz^{-1}} \quad (3.28)$$

where

$$C = \frac{b(1 - \epsilon^2)}{T\epsilon(1 - b\epsilon)} \quad (3.29)$$

The recursive equation for the filter is developed as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} H(z) &= \frac{\hat{x}(z)}{z(z)} = \frac{C}{1 - bz^{-1}} \\ \hat{x}(z)(1 - bz^{-1}) &= Cz(z) \\ \hat{x}(z) &= bz^{-1} \hat{x}(z) + Cz(z) \\ \hat{x}(k+1) &= b\hat{x}(k) + CZ(k+1) \end{aligned} \quad (3.30)$$

The error is

$$E(k) = \hat{x}(k) - x(k) \quad (3.31)$$

For the specific example the coefficients for the filter, Eq. 3.30, become $b = .869$ and $c = 12.45$. These differ from the coefficients for the discrete Wiener-Kolmogorov filter, Eq. 2.3-11. One might expect that these results would be identical, but although Schwarz and Friedland¹⁷ consider both developments the discrepancy is not explained and remains a subject for further investigation.

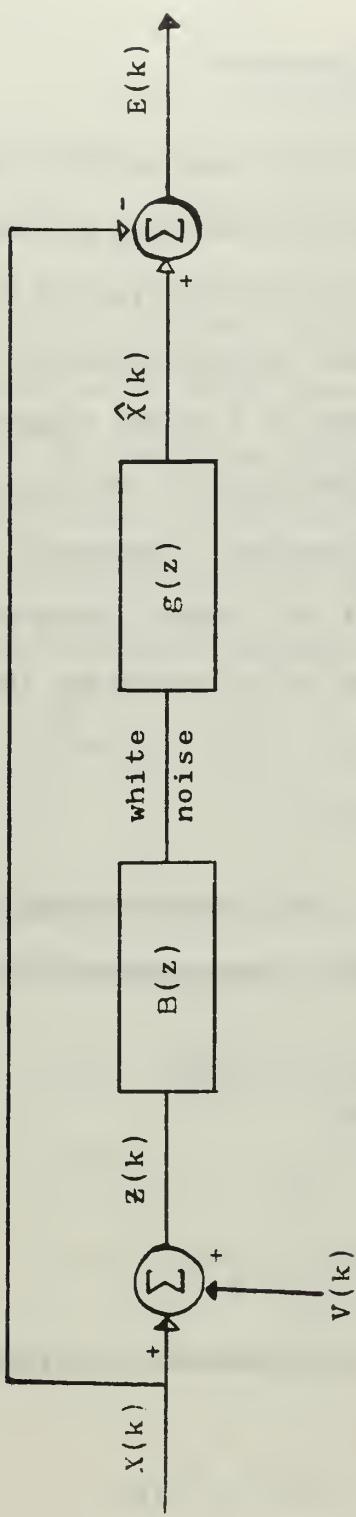


FIGURE 9

DISCRETE BODE-SHANNON FILTER

CHAPTER IV

THE KALMAN FILTER

1. DISCRETE TIME SOLUTION

The objective in this chapter is to examine the filtering problem from the state point of view as developed by Kalman.^{9,10,11}

In the previous cases, the signal was characterized by either the autocorrelation function or the power spectral density. Here the signal is characterized by the output of a linear dynamic system driven by white noise similar to Bode-Shannon. This presents no problem, for if the power spectral density is rational, it can always be represented as the output of a linear system driven by white noise. As in Chapter II, the linear system has the transfer function,

$$G_1(s) = \frac{1}{s + 1} \quad (4.1-1)$$

Since this is a first order system, the observation matrix is unity and scalar notation can be used. The corresponding differential equation is

$$\frac{dx(t)}{dt} = -x(t) + w(t) \quad (4.1-2)$$

Then, from state variable theory,

$$\Phi = e^{-T} \quad \text{and} \quad \Gamma = 1 - e^{-T}$$

and the differential equation may be expressed in equivalent recursive form:

$$X(k+1) = e^{-T} X(k) + (1 - e^{-T})W(k) \quad (4.1-3)$$

The signal model is outlined in diagram form in Figure 10; $w(t)$ and $v(t)$ are independent gaussian random processes with zero means and covariances given by:

$$\text{cov} [w(t), w(\tau)] = Q\delta(t - \tau)$$

$$\text{cov} [v(t), v(\tau)] = R\delta(t - \tau)$$

$$\text{cov} [w(t), v(\tau)] = 0$$

Q and R are the variances of the signal white noise source and the measurement noise, which are set equal to unity in order to duplicate the model for the Wiener filter. The noise sources are simulated in the exact manner as described in Chapter II, Section 4.

The Kalman filter¹¹ is shown in Figure 11. $G(k)$ is an adjustable gain which minimizes the mean square error,

$$\overline{E^2(n)} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n (E(k))^2 \quad (4.1-4)$$

where

$$E(k) = \hat{X}(k) - X(k)$$

$G(k)$ is determined by the following equations:

$$G(k) = \frac{P(k/k - 1)}{P(k/k - 1) + R} \quad (4.1-5)$$

$$P(k/k) = (1 - G(k)) P(k/k - 1) \quad (4.1-6)$$

$$P(k + 1/k) = \Phi^2 P(k/k) + QD \quad (4.1-7)$$

where $P(k/k - 1)$ denotes P at time k given the value at time $k - 1$.

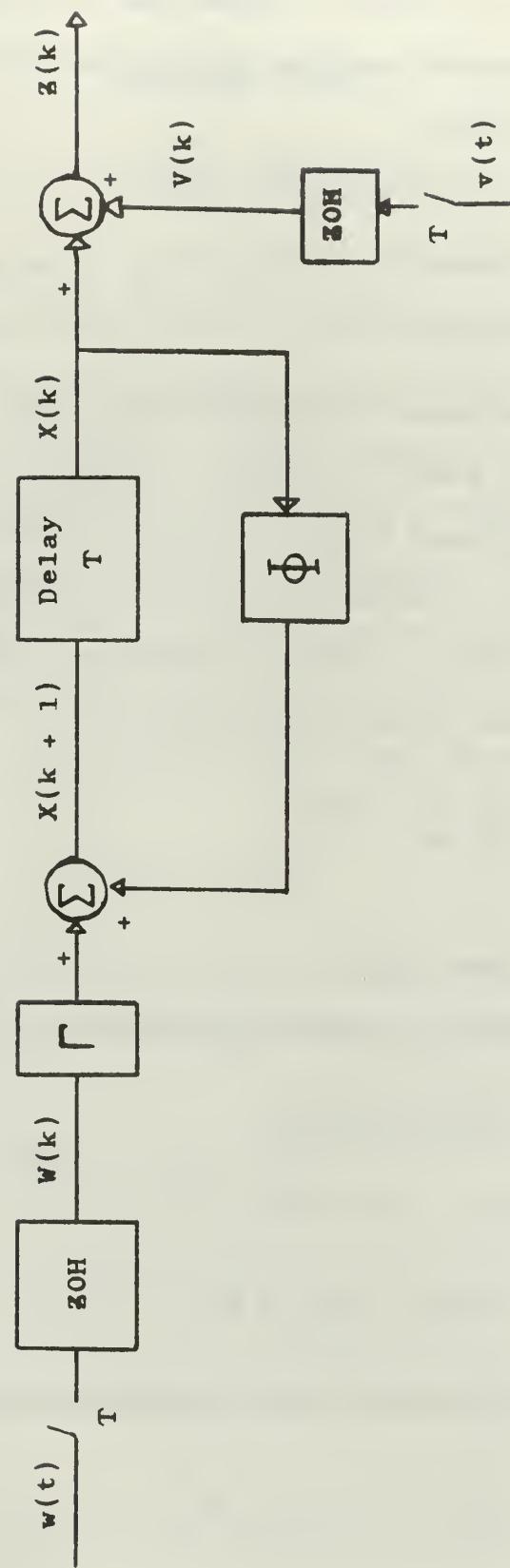


FIGURE 10

KALMAN SIGNAL MODEL

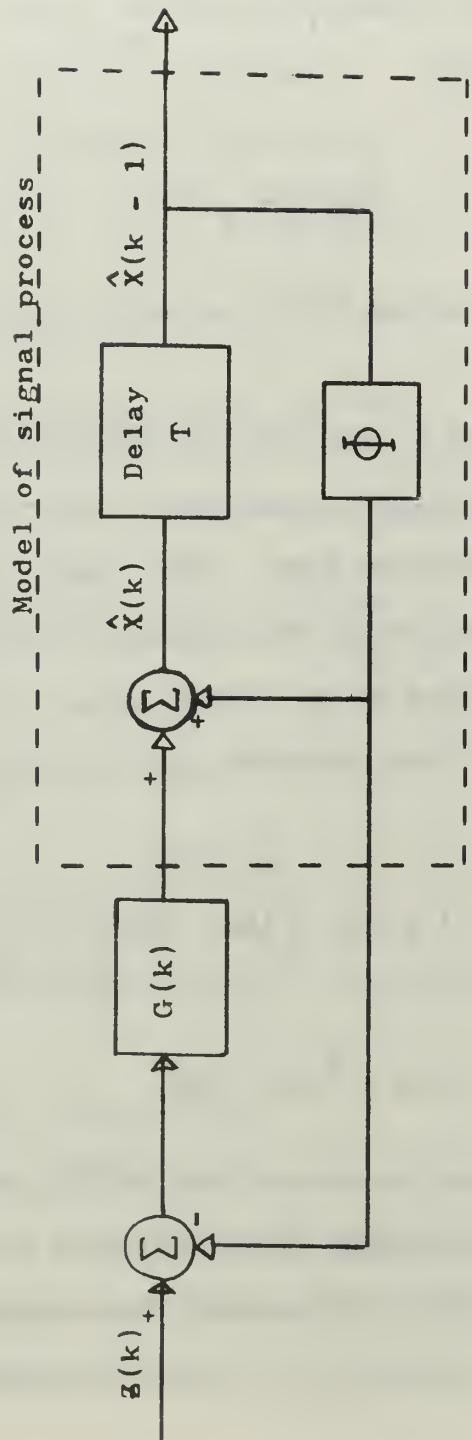


FIGURE 11

DISCRETE KALMAN FILTER

$$P(k/k-1) \triangleq E \left\{ [Z(k) - Z(k/k-1)]^2 \right\} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{n=0}^{k-1} [Z(n+1) - Z(n+1/n)]^2$$

$$P(k/k) \triangleq E \left\{ [Z(k) - Z(k/k)]^2 \right\} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{n=1}^k [Z(n) - Z(n/n)]^2$$

also,

$$QD = \Gamma^2 Q$$

It is necessary to define $P(1/0)$ in order to start the recursive process.

It is important to note that once $P(1/0)$ is specified the gain equations, Eqs. 4.1-5, 4.1-6, and 4.1-7, are recursive and do not depend on the observations $Z(kT)$. They depend upon the variance of the signal driving noise, the variance of the measurement noise, and the characteristics of the linear system used for signal generation.

From Figure 1, the recursive equation for the Kalman filter may be expressed as

$$\hat{X}(k) = \hat{X}(k-1) + G(k) \left[Z(k) - \hat{X}(k-1) \right] \quad (4.1-8)$$

The error is

$$E(k) = \hat{X}(k) - X(k) \quad (4.1-9)$$

As in the Wiener simulation, the sampling interval is 0.01 seconds, $\hat{X}(0)$ is the initial estimate at time $t = 0$ and the length of the computer run is 3,000 samples. The computer program for the Kalman filter simulation is included as Appendix E.

2. EQUIVALENCE OF KALMAN AND WIENER-KOLMOGOROV FILTERS
IN THE STEADY STATE

It has been shown by C. E. Hutchinson⁶ that the continuous Kalman and Wiener filters are equivalent in the scalar case after the steady state condition is reached, i.e., $G(k)$ is a constant. This equivalence is developed as follows.

Given a message spectrum, $W_x(\omega) = \frac{a^2}{b^2\omega^2 + 1}$

a noise spectrum, $W_v(\omega) = c^2$

and a crosscorrelation function, $\varphi_{xv}(\tau) = 0$

The optimal causal filter, in the Wiener sense, is then

$$H(s) = (k_2 - k_1) \frac{1}{s + k_2} \quad (4.2-1)$$

where

$$k_1 = 1/b$$

$$k_2 = 1/bc \sqrt{a^2 + c^2}$$

Now consider the Kalman filter. The signal model is, in general, defined by:

$$\dot{x}(t) = Fx(t) + w(t) \quad (4.2-2)$$

$$z(t) = Mx(t) + v(t) \quad (4.2-3)$$

The best estimate of x , designated \hat{x} , is obtained from the continuous filter equations which correspond to the discrete equations 4.1-5, 4.1-6, 4.1-7, and 4.1-8.

$$\dot{\hat{x}}(t) = F\hat{x}(t) + g(t) [z(t) - Mx(t)] \quad (4.2-4)$$

where

$$g(t) = P(t) M^T R^{-1}$$

$$\dot{P}(t) = FP(t) + P f^T(t) - P(t) M^T R^{-1} M P(t) + Q$$

and

$$\text{cov} [w(t), w(\tau)] = Q\delta(t - \tau)$$

$$\text{cov} [v(t), v(\tau)] = R\delta(t - \tau)$$

$$\text{cov} [w(t), v(\tau)] = 0$$

If a one dimensional problem is considered with

$$F = -1/b$$

$$Q = a^2/b^2$$

$$R = c^2$$

$$M = 1$$

the Kalman solution becomes

$$\dot{\hat{x}}(t) = -1/b \hat{x}(t) + g(t) [z(t) - x(t)] \quad (4.2-5)$$

where

$$g(t) = P(t)/c^2$$

$$\dot{P}(t) = - (2/b)P(t) - (1/c^2)P^2(t) + a^2 b^2$$

In the steady state, when $P(t)$ is identically zero, the equation for the Kalman filter reduces to

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{\hat{x}}(t) = -1/b \hat{x}(t) + \\ \left[-1/b + 1/bc \sqrt{a^2 + c^2} \right] [z(t) - \hat{x}(t)] \end{aligned} \quad (4.2-6)$$

The transfer function relating the estimated signal, $\hat{X}(s)$, to the signal plus the noise, $Z(s)$, can be expressed as

$$\frac{\hat{X}(s)}{Z(s)} = (k_2 - k_1) \frac{1}{s + k_2} \quad (4.2-7)$$

which is identical to Eq. 4.2-1. This result can be used as a check on computer programs for the Kalman and Wiener-Kolmogorov filters.

When $G(k)$ has reached a constant value, the mean square errors should be identical.

CHAPTER V

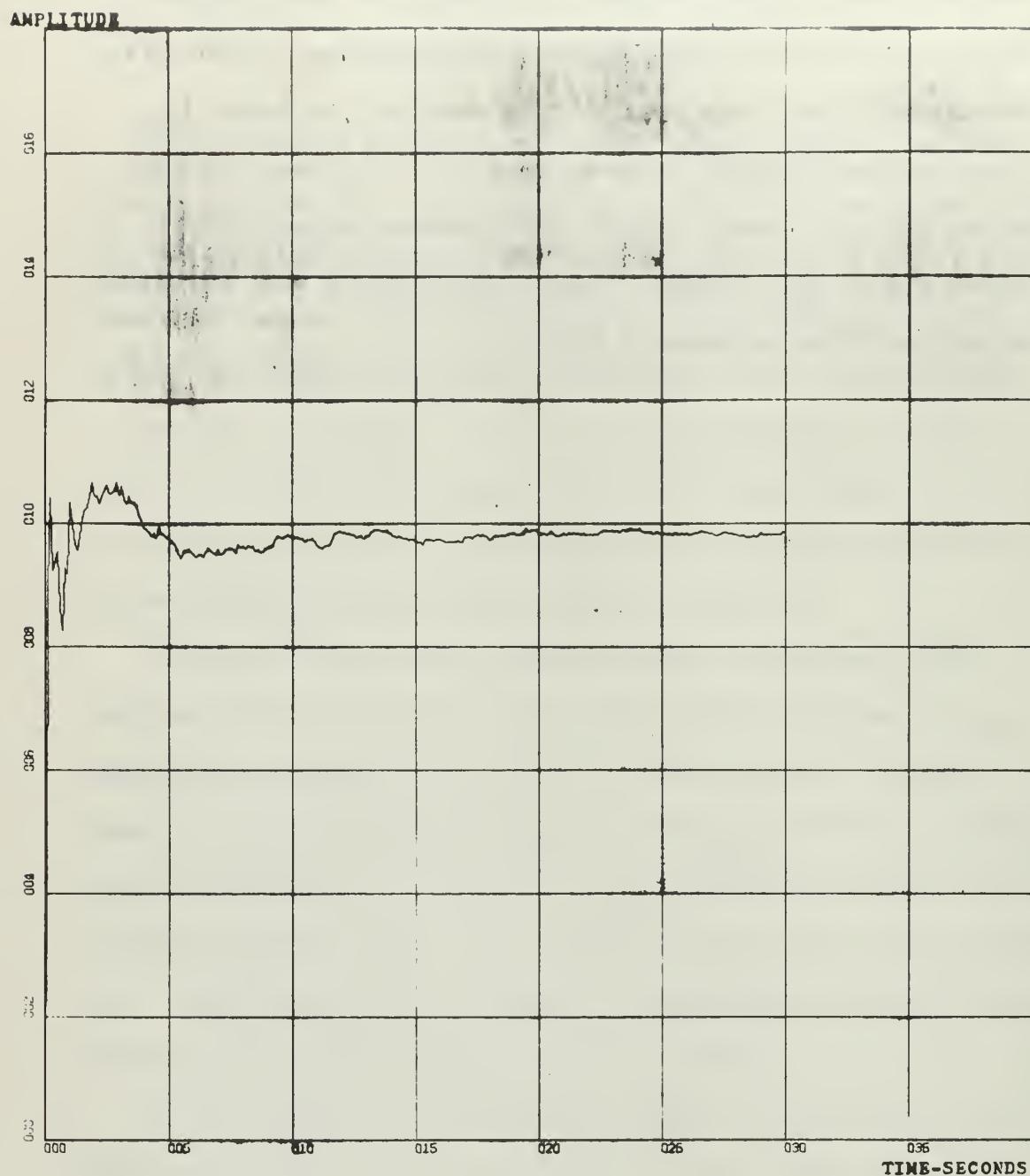
RESULTS AND COMPARISONS

The continuous Kalman and Wiener-Kolmogorov filters have been shown, in Chapter IV, to be equivalent in the steady state condition, that is, when the Kalman gain is constant. This result is verified experimentally, as shown by the computer curves of Figures 16, 20, 24, and 28. The steady state gain of the Kalman filter reaches a value of .0041335 as expected. As soon as the gain reaches its steady value, the curves of mean square error versus time (Figures 18, 19, 22, 23, 26, 27, 30, and 32) are identical to each other and to the Wiener-Kolmogorov filter curves (Figures 14 and 15).

In order to start the recursive process, the Kalman filter requires a priori knowledge of the initial error covariance, $P_{1/0}$. Four different values of $P_{1/0}$ (0.0, .414065, 1.0, and 10.0) were chosen to compare the effectiveness of the Kalman filter for different values of this term. The value of $P_{1/0} = .415065$ was chosen because it gives the steady state gain (.0041335) at the start of the computer run. With this $P_{1/0}$ the performance of the Kalman and Wiener-Kolmogorov filters are identical (Figures 13-15 and 21-23).

In simulating the non-stationary signal, two different initial values were chosen; one to correspond to a small initial error in estimation and the other to correspond to a large error in the initial estimation. In a tracking problem, the first case would represent the situation where a target is picked up at long range. The second case represents the situation where a target suddenly appears at relatively short range. For small initial errors, the Wiener-Kolmogorov

and the Kalman filters performed essentially the same (Figures 13, 14, 17, 18, 21, 22, 25, 26, 29, and 30). For large initial errors the Kalman filter, with large initial covariance of error, $P_{1/0}$, gives the best transient response (Fig. 31). For large initial error, if $P_{1/0}$ is equal to zero, the transient response of the Kalman filter takes somewhat longer time to settle than the Wiener-Kolmogorov filter as shown in Fig. 19.

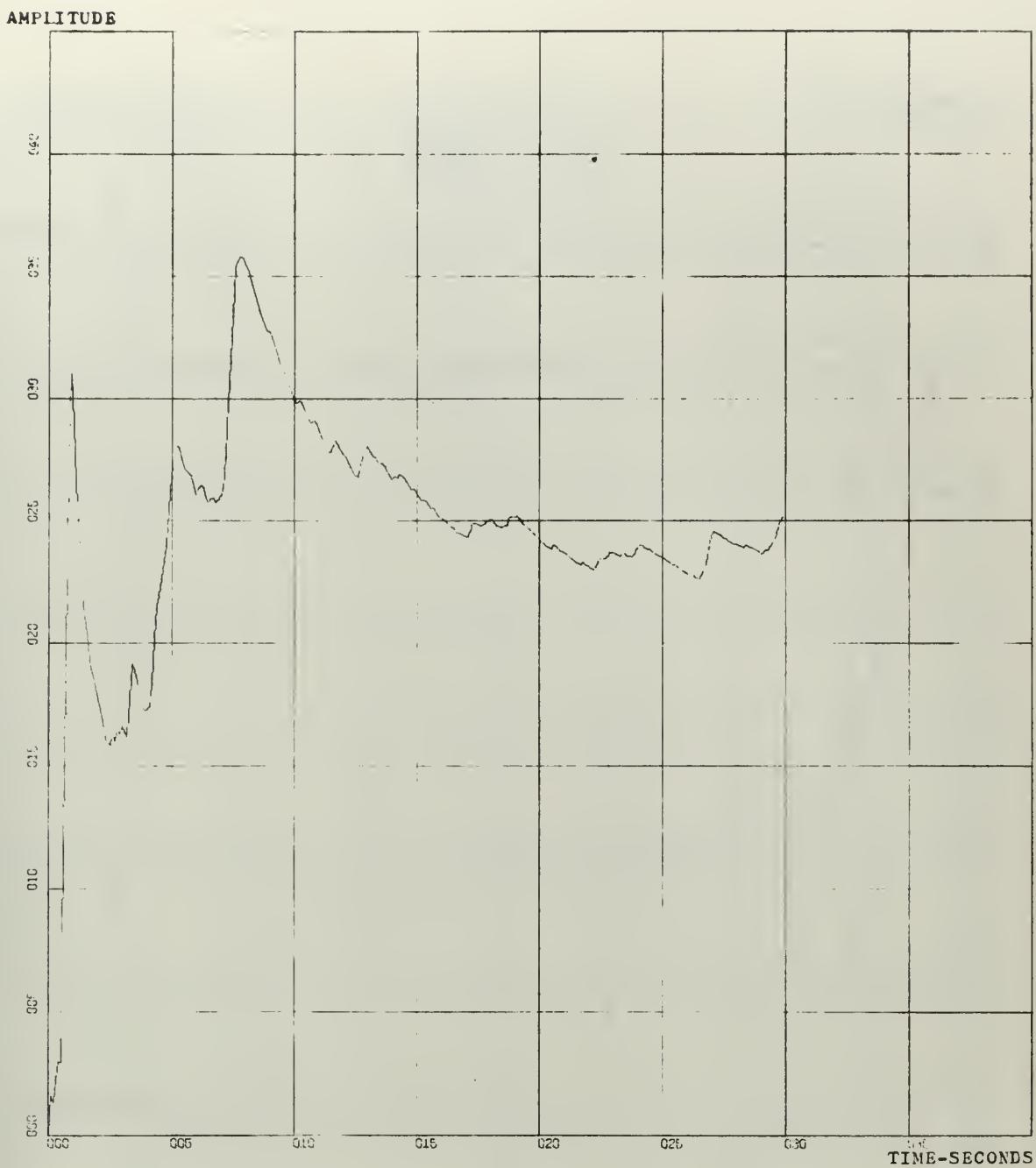


X-SCALE=5.00E+01 UNITS INCH.

Y-SCALE=2.00E+01 UNITS INCH.

NO FILTER M.S.E. VS TIME
FLETCHER H.G. THESIS

FIGURE 12



SMALL INITIAL ERROR

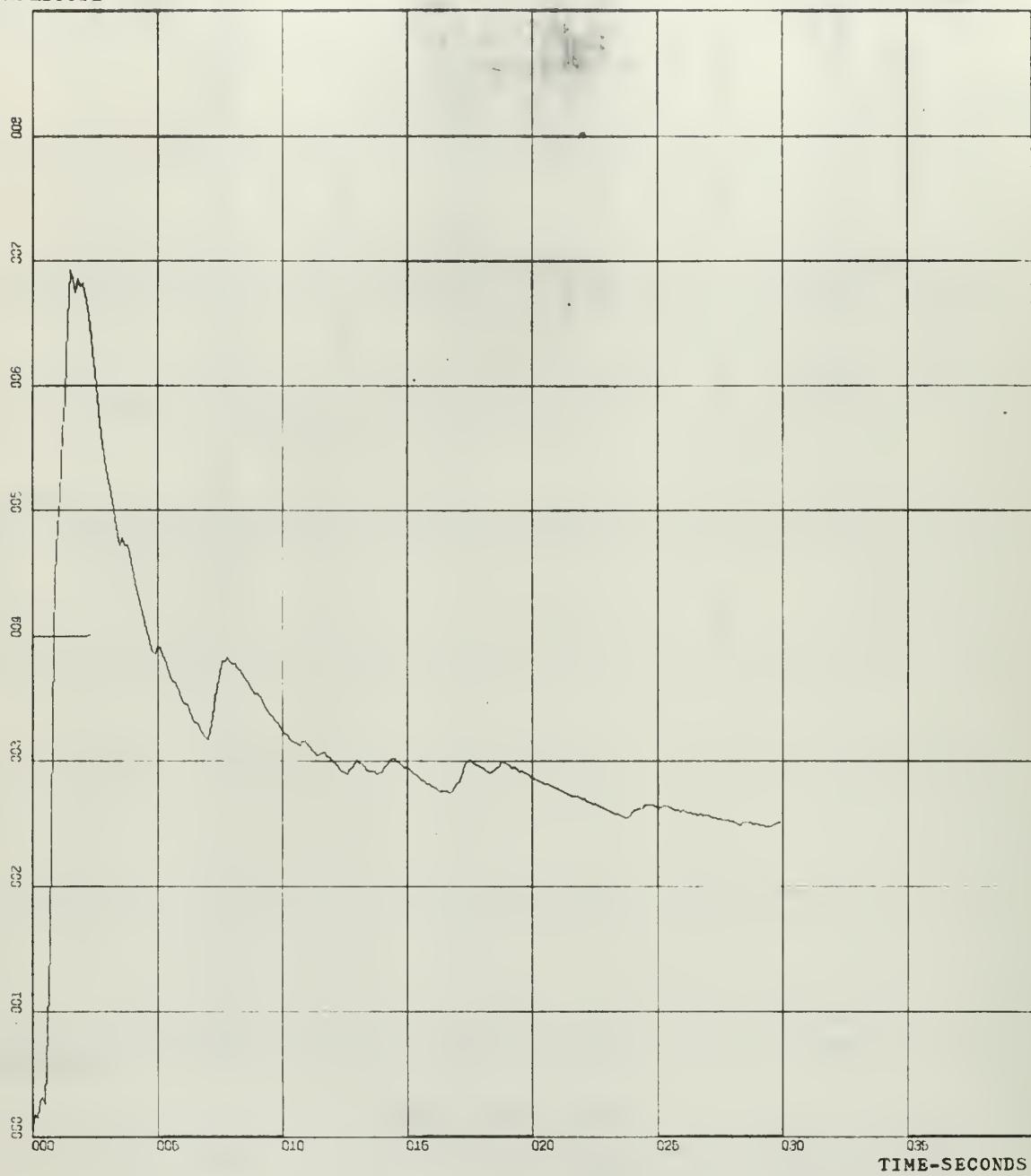
X- SCALE=5.00E+01 UNITS INCH.

Y- SCALE=5.00E-02 UNITS INCH.

WIENER FILTER VARIANCE OF E. VS TIME
FLETCHER H.G. THESIS

FIGURE 13

AMPLITUDE



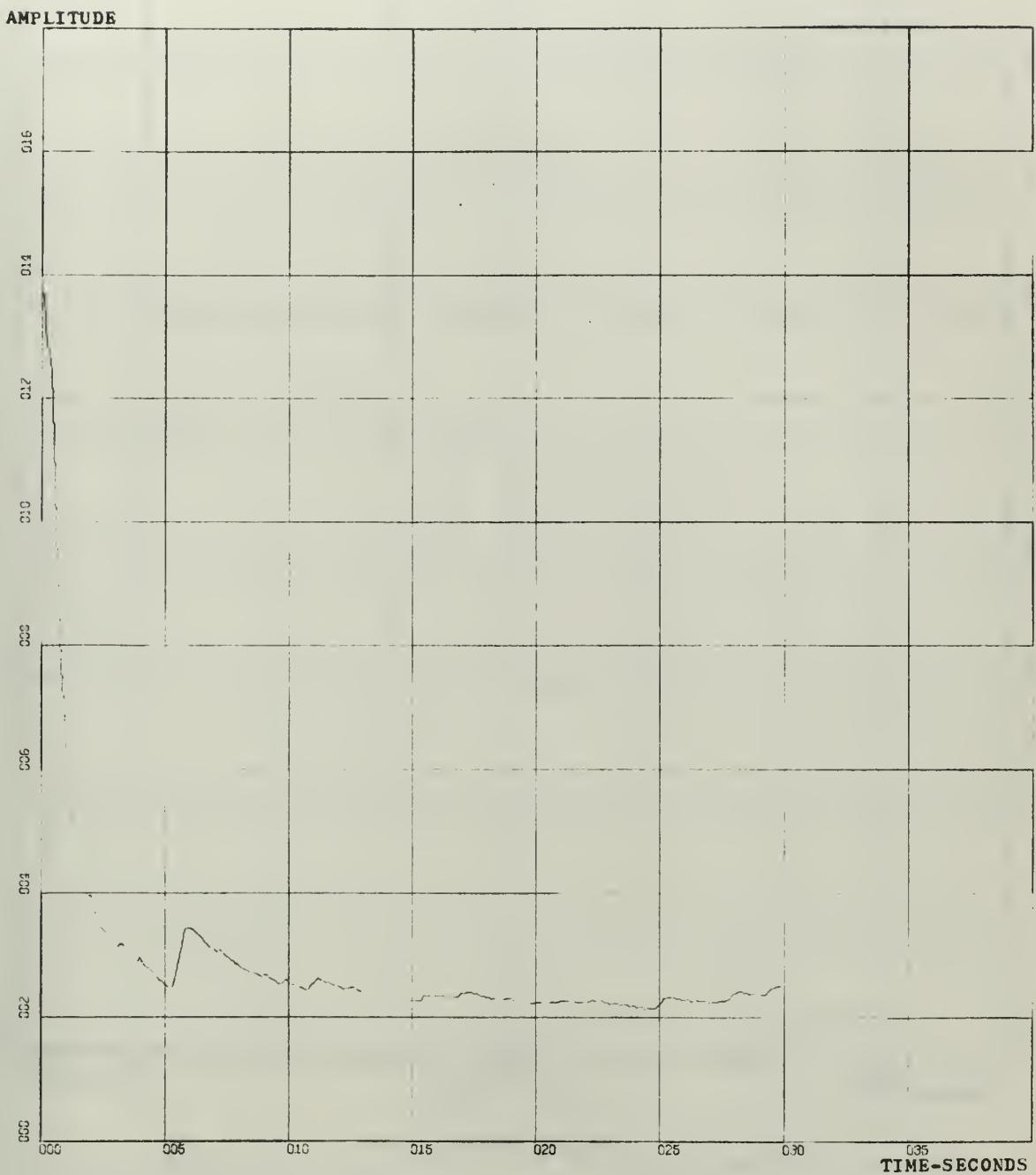
SMALL INITIAL ERROR

X-SCALE=5.00E+01 UNITS INCH.

Y-SCALE=1.00E-01 UNITS INCH.

WIENER FILTER M.S.E. VS TIME
FLETCHER H.G. THESIS

FIGURE 14



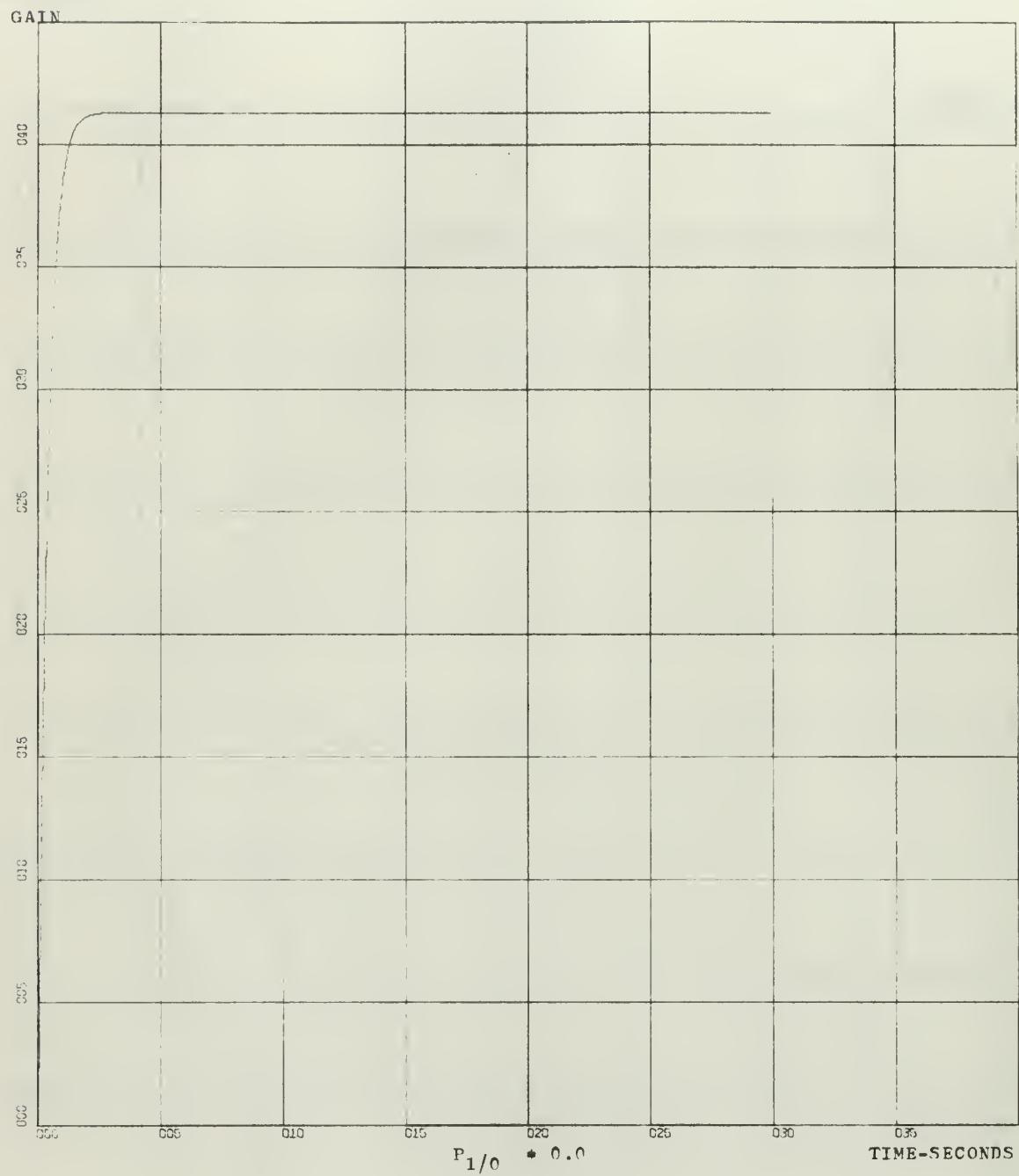
LARGE INITIAL ERROR

X-SCALE=5.00E+01 UNITS INCH.

Y-SCALE=2.00E-01 UNITS INCH.

WIENER FILTER M.S.E. VS TIME
FLETCHER H.G. THESIS

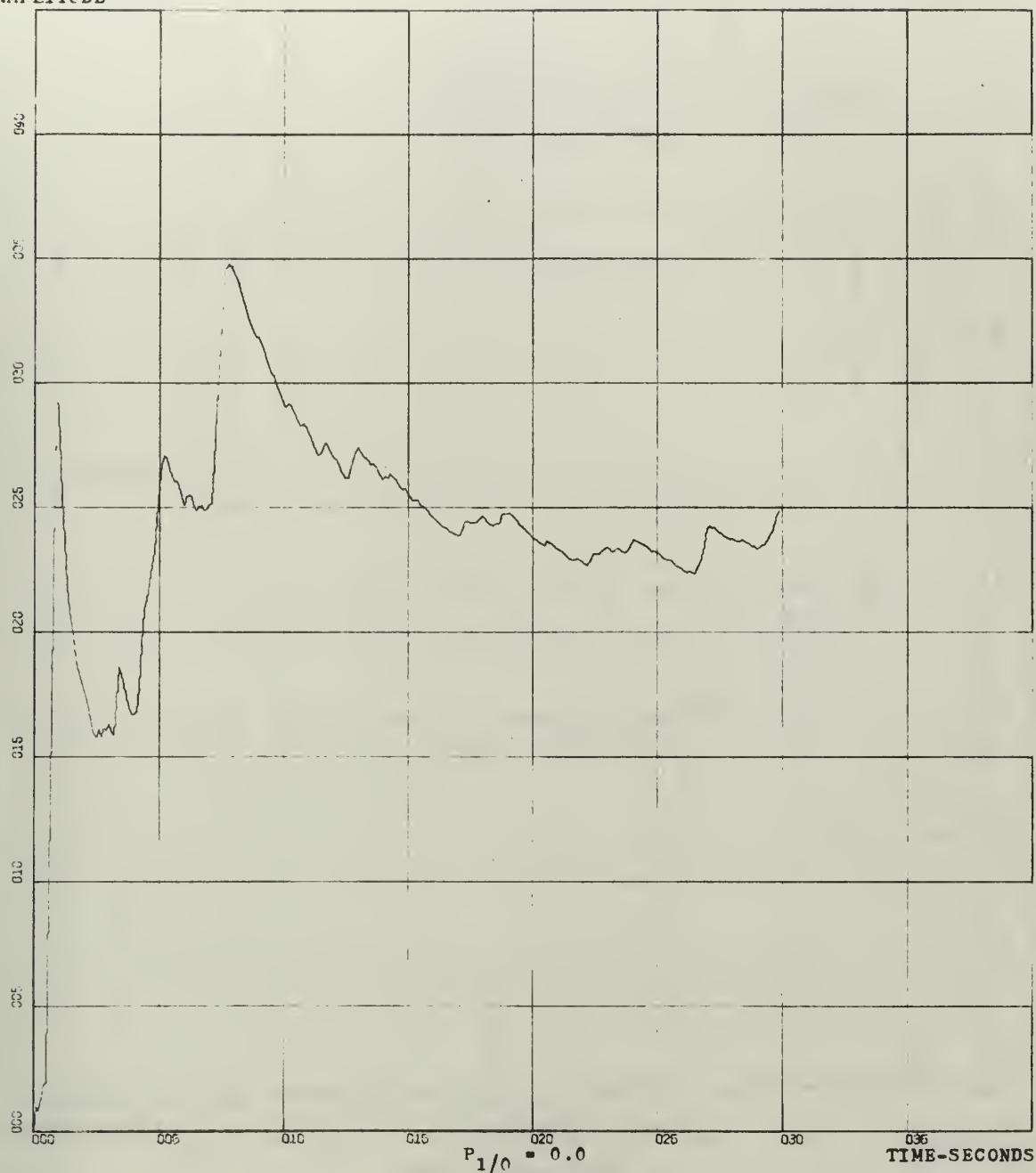
FIGURE 15



KALMAN FILTER GAIN VS. TIME
 FLETCHER H. G. THESIS 1

FIGURE 16

AMPLITUDE

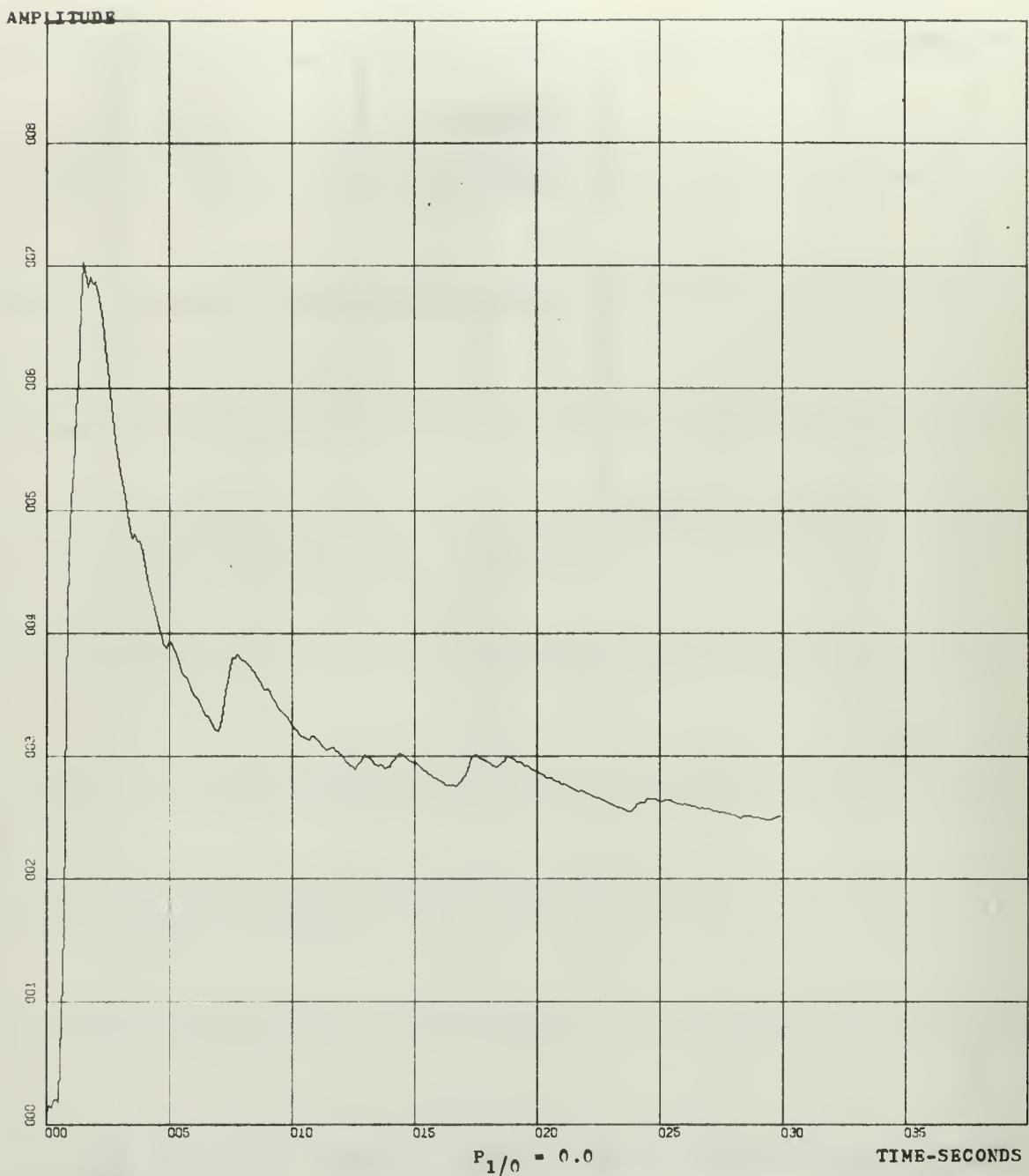


SMALL INITIAL ERROR

X-SCALE=5.00E+01 UNITS INCH.
Y-SCALE=5.00E-02 UNITS INCH.

KALMAN FILTER VARIANCE OF E. VS TIME
FLETCHER H.G. THESIS 1

FIGURE 17



SMALL INITIAL ERROR

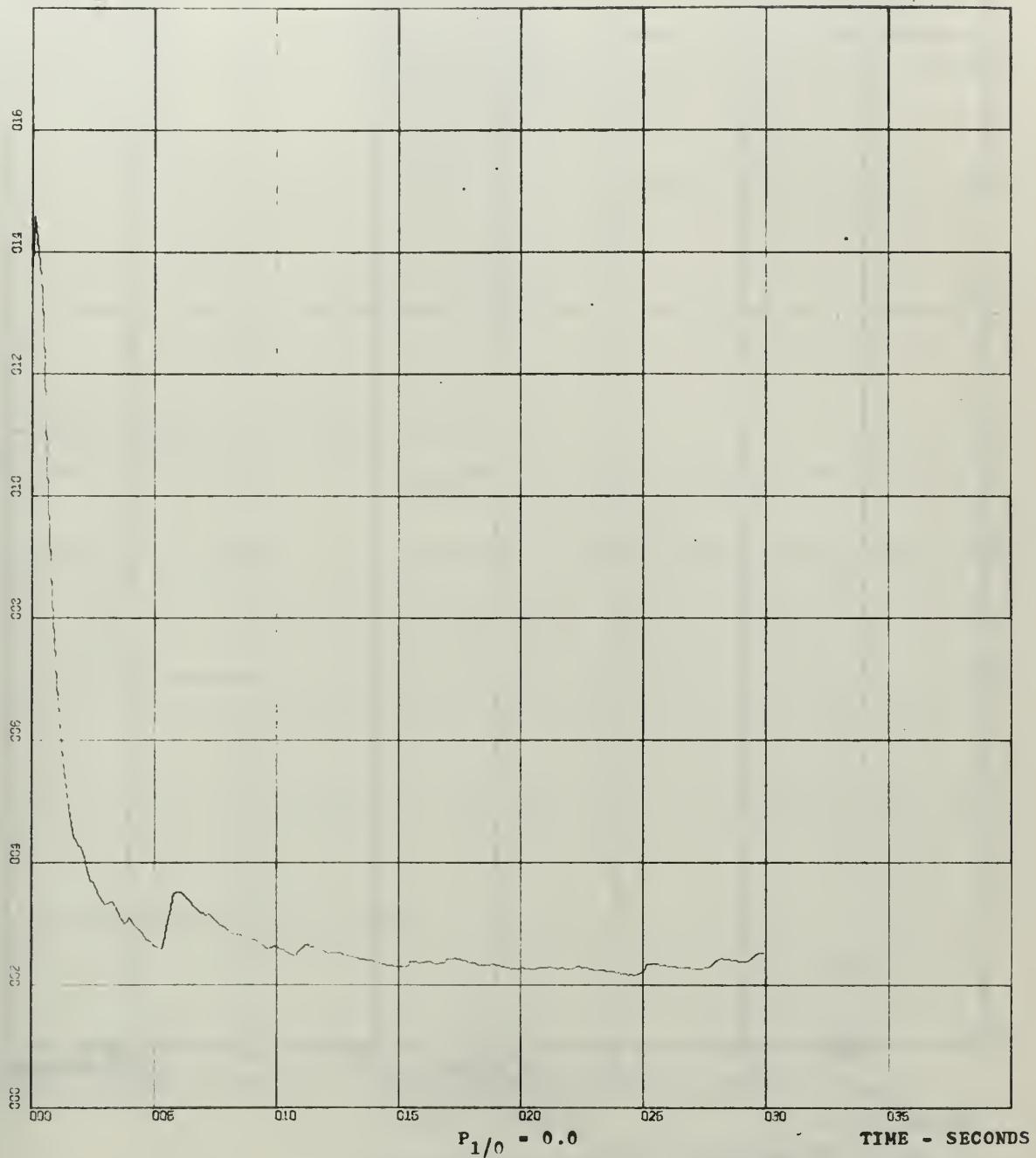
X-SCALE=5.00E+01 UNITS INCH.

Y-SCALE=1.00E-01 UNITS INCH.

KALMAN FILTER M.S.E. VS TIME
FLETCHER H.G. THESIS 1

FIGURE 18

AMPLITUDE



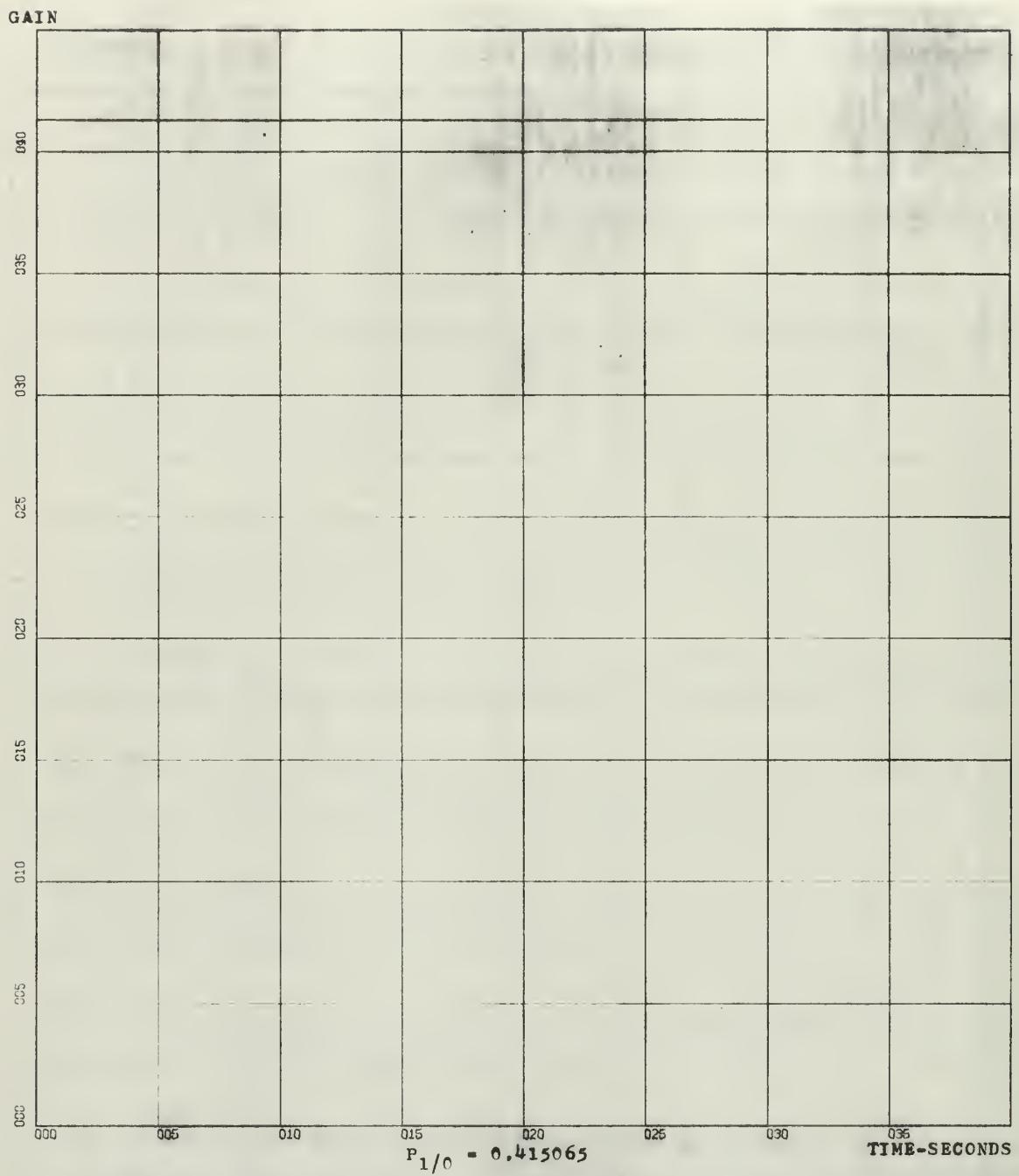
LARGE INITIAL ERROR

X-SCALE=5.00E+01 UNITS INCH.

Y-SCALE=2.00E-01 UNITS INCH.

KALMAN FILTER M.S.E. VS TIME
FLETCHER H.G. THESIS 1

FIGURE 19

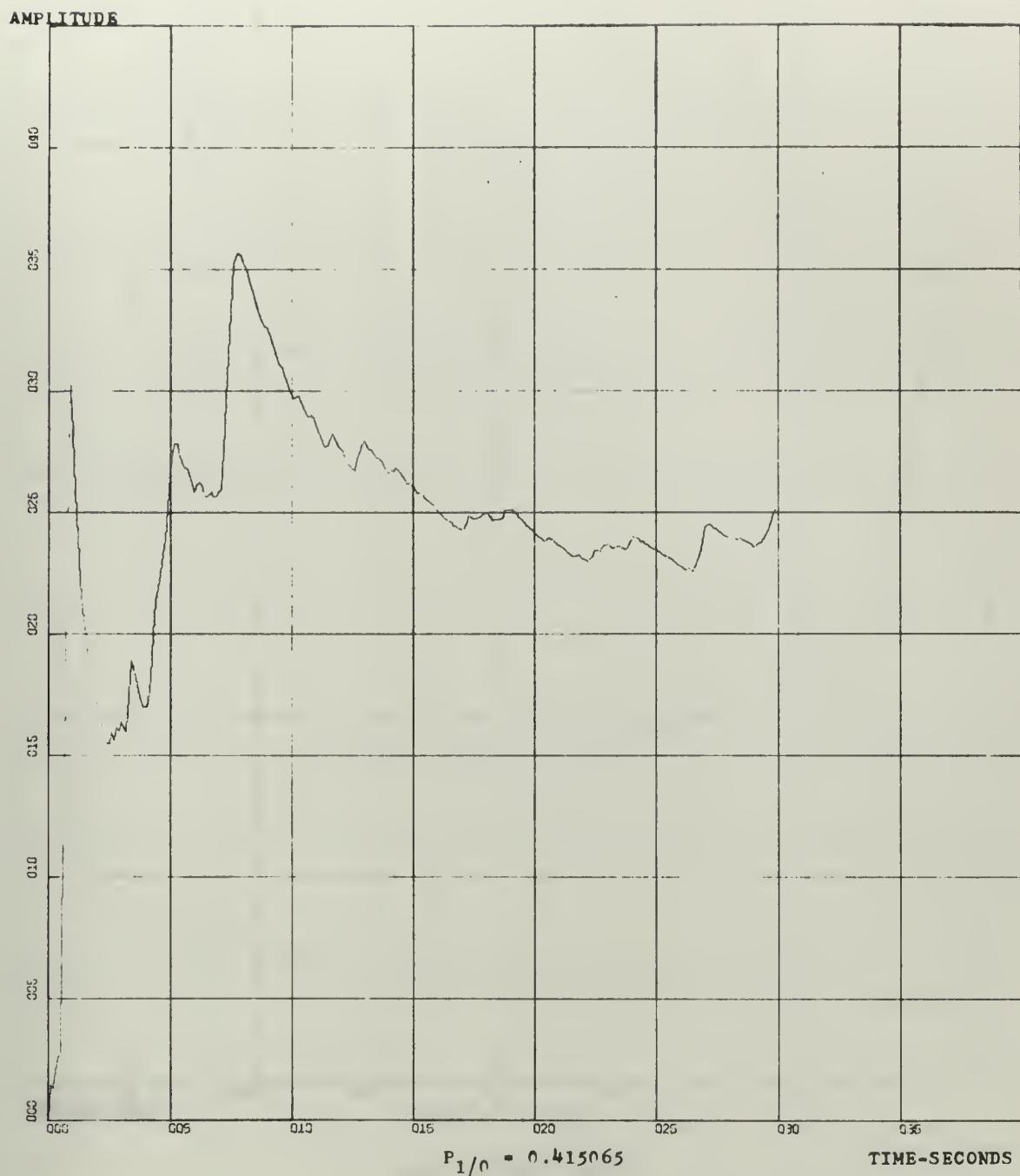


Y-SCALE=5.00E+01 UNITS INCH.

Y-SCALE=5.00E-04 UNITS INCH.

KALMAN FILTER GAIN VS. TIME
FLETCHER H.G. THESIS 1

FIGURE 20



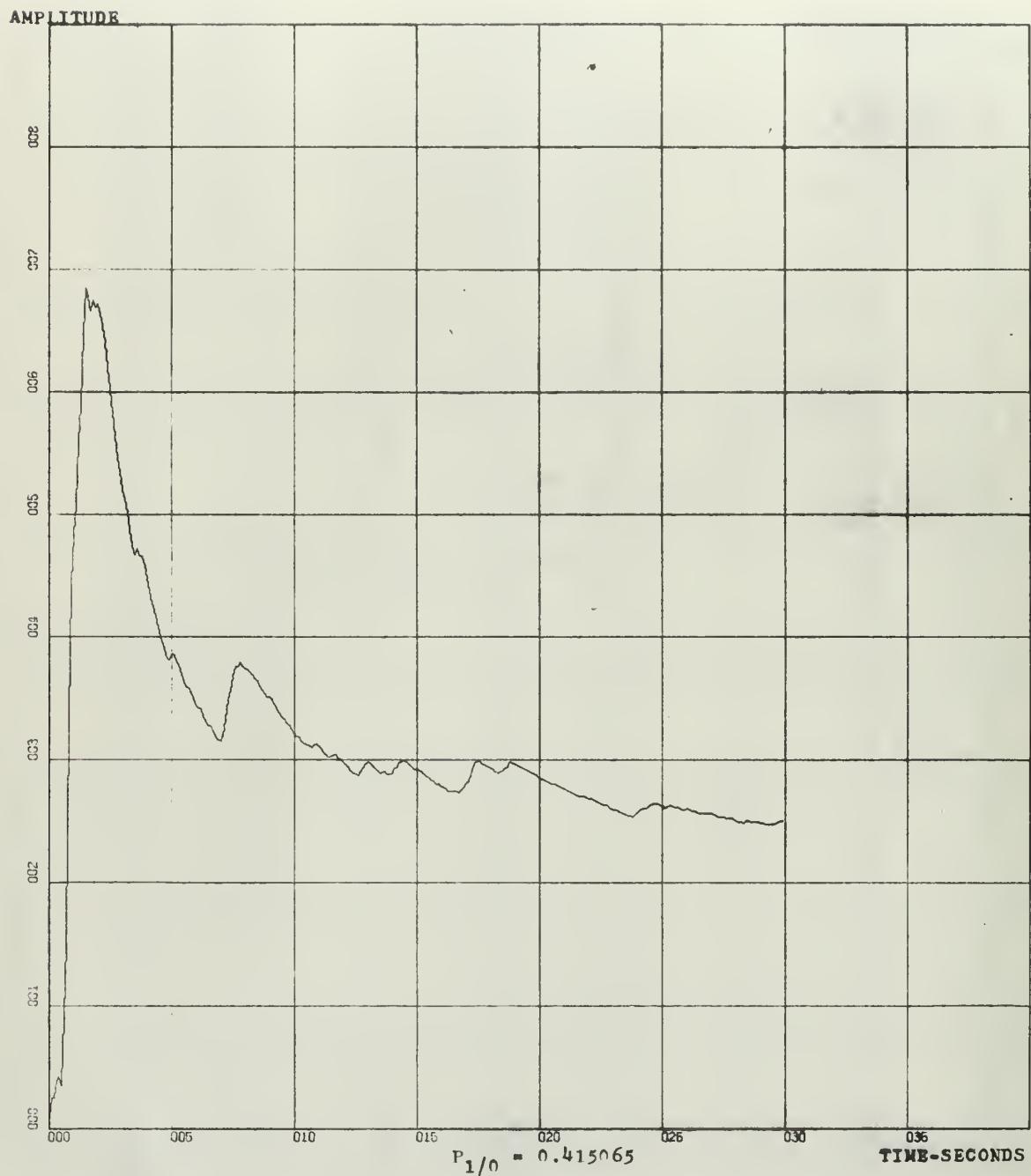
SMALL INITIAL ERROR

X-SCALE=5.00E+01 UNITS INCH.

Y-SCALE=5.00E-02 UNITS INCH.

KALMAN FILTER VARIANCE OF E. VS TIME
FLETCHER H.G. THESIS 2

FIGURE 21



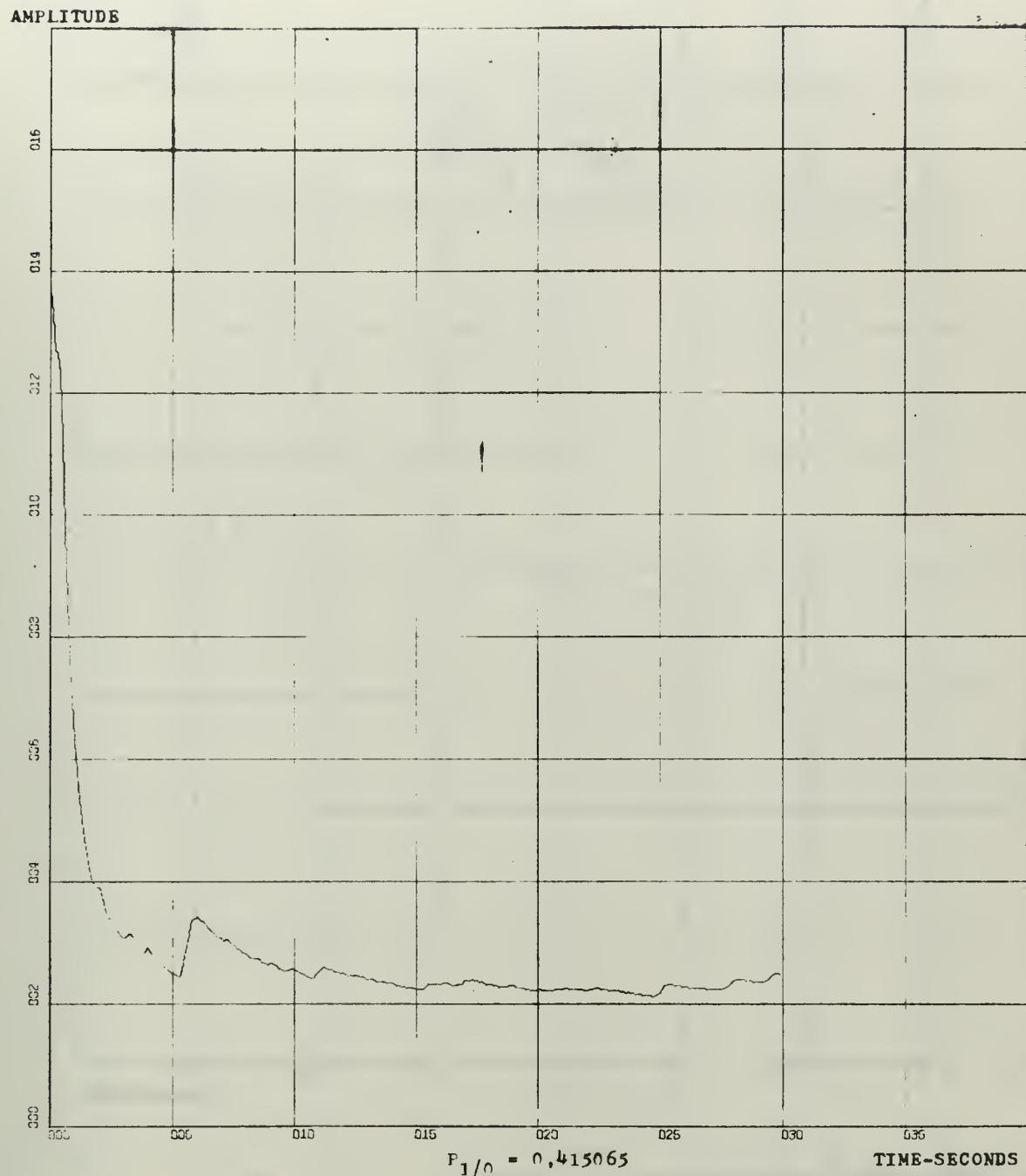
SMALL INITIAL ERROR

X-SCALE=5.00E+01 UNITS INCH.

Y-SCALE=1.00E-01 UNITS INCH.

KALMAN FILTER M.S.E. VS TIME
FLETCHER H.G. THESIS 2

FIGURE 22



LARGE INITIAL ERROR

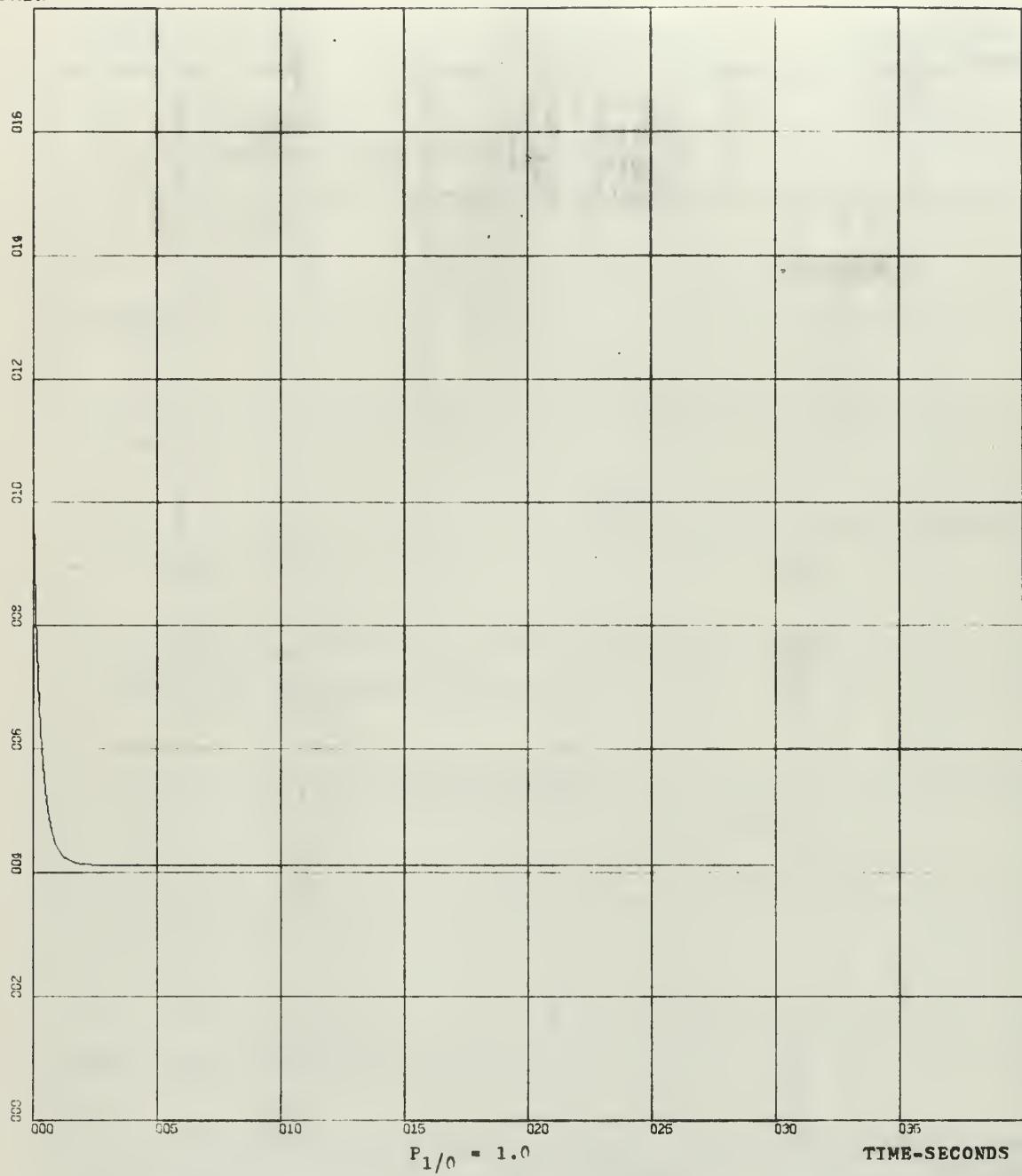
X-SCALE=5.00E+01 UNITS INCH.

Y-SCALE=2.00E-01 UNITS INCH.

KALMAN FILTER M.S.E. VS TIME
FLETCHER H.G. THESIS 2

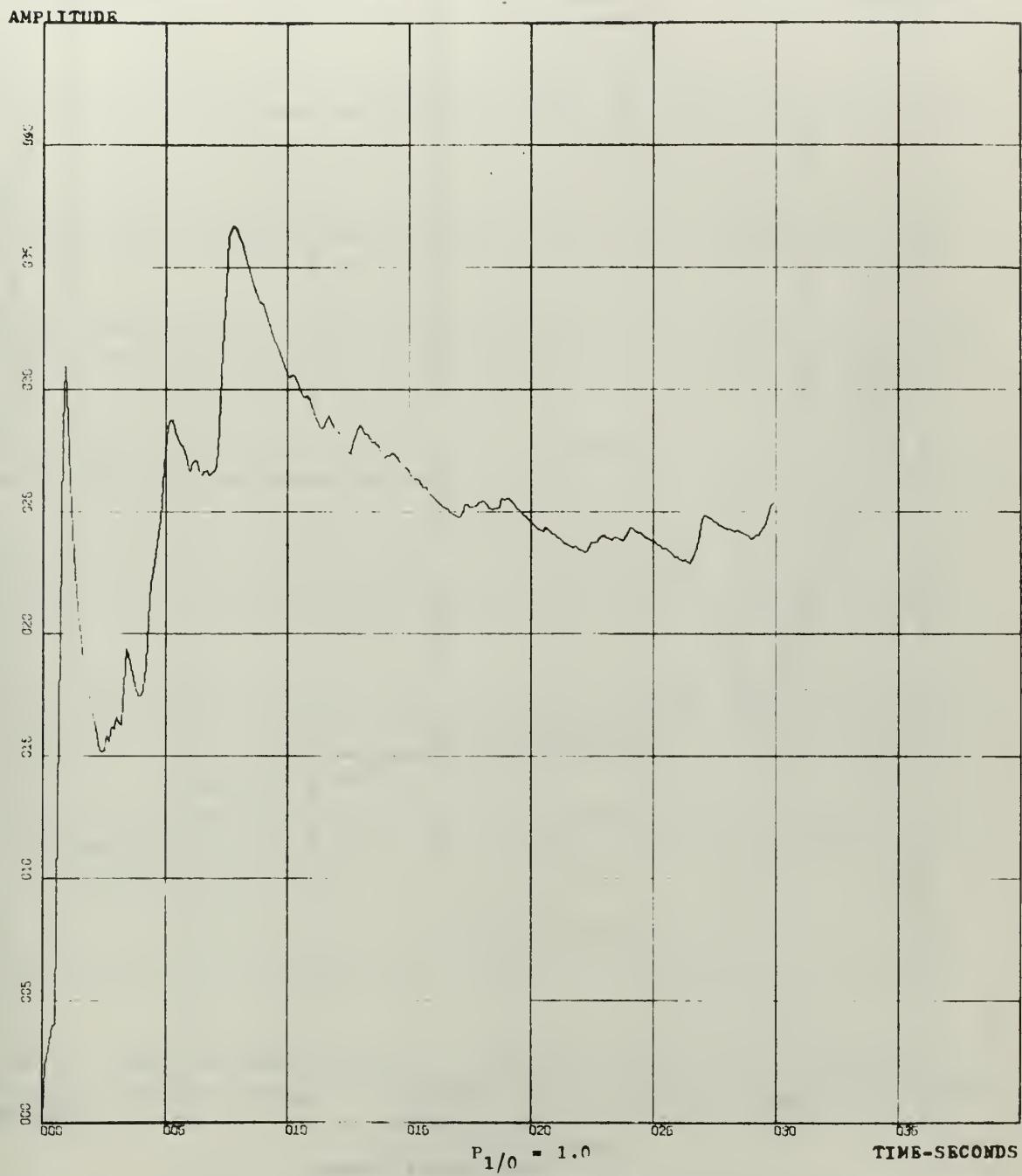
FIGURE 23

GAIN



KALMAN FILTER GAIN VS. TIME
FLETCHER H.G. THESIS

FIGURE 24

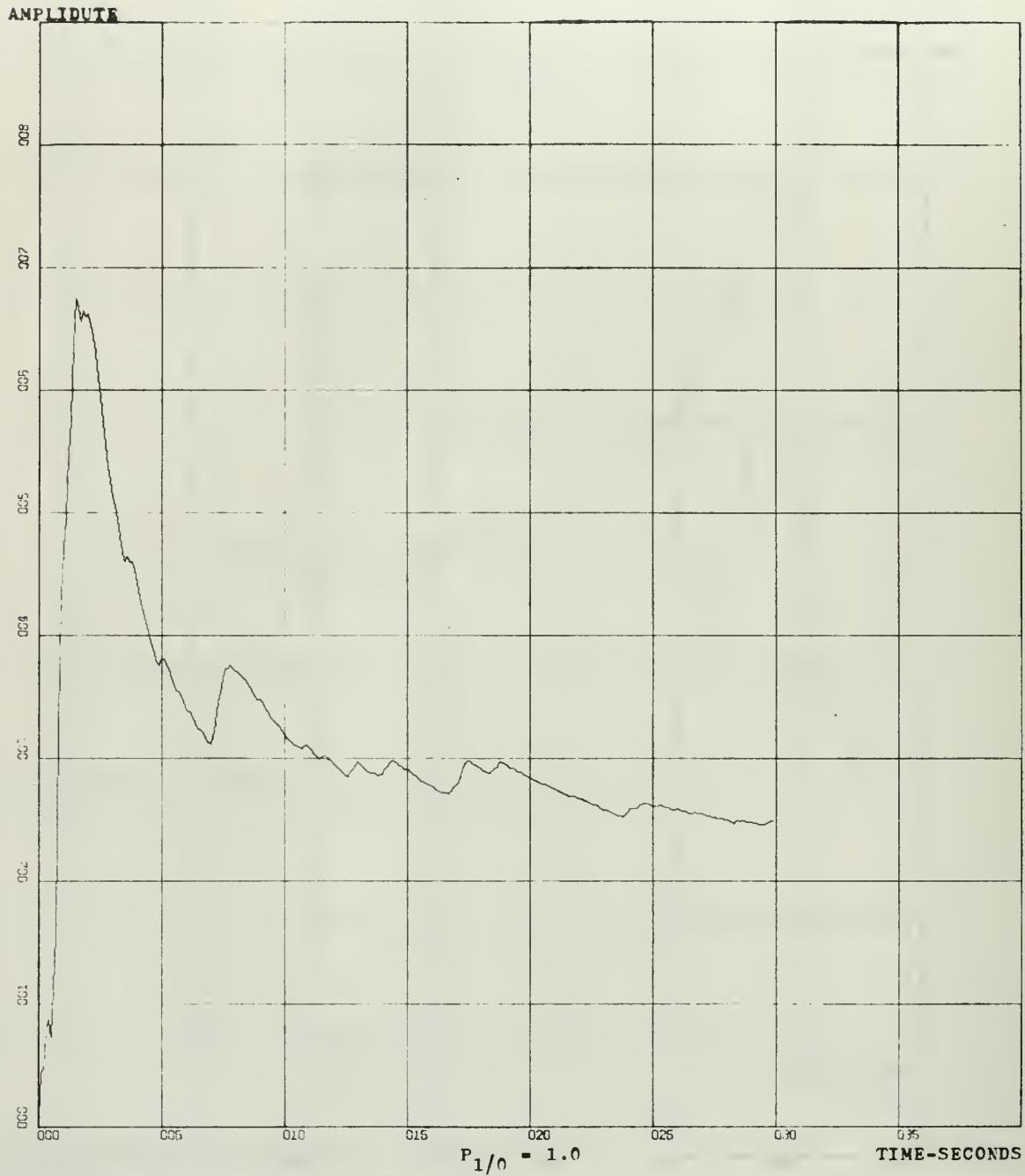


X-SCALE=5.00E+01 UNITS INCH.

Y-SCALE=5.00E-02 UNITS INCH.

KALMAN FILTER VARIANCE OF E. VS TIME
FLETCHER H.G. THESIS

FIGURE 26

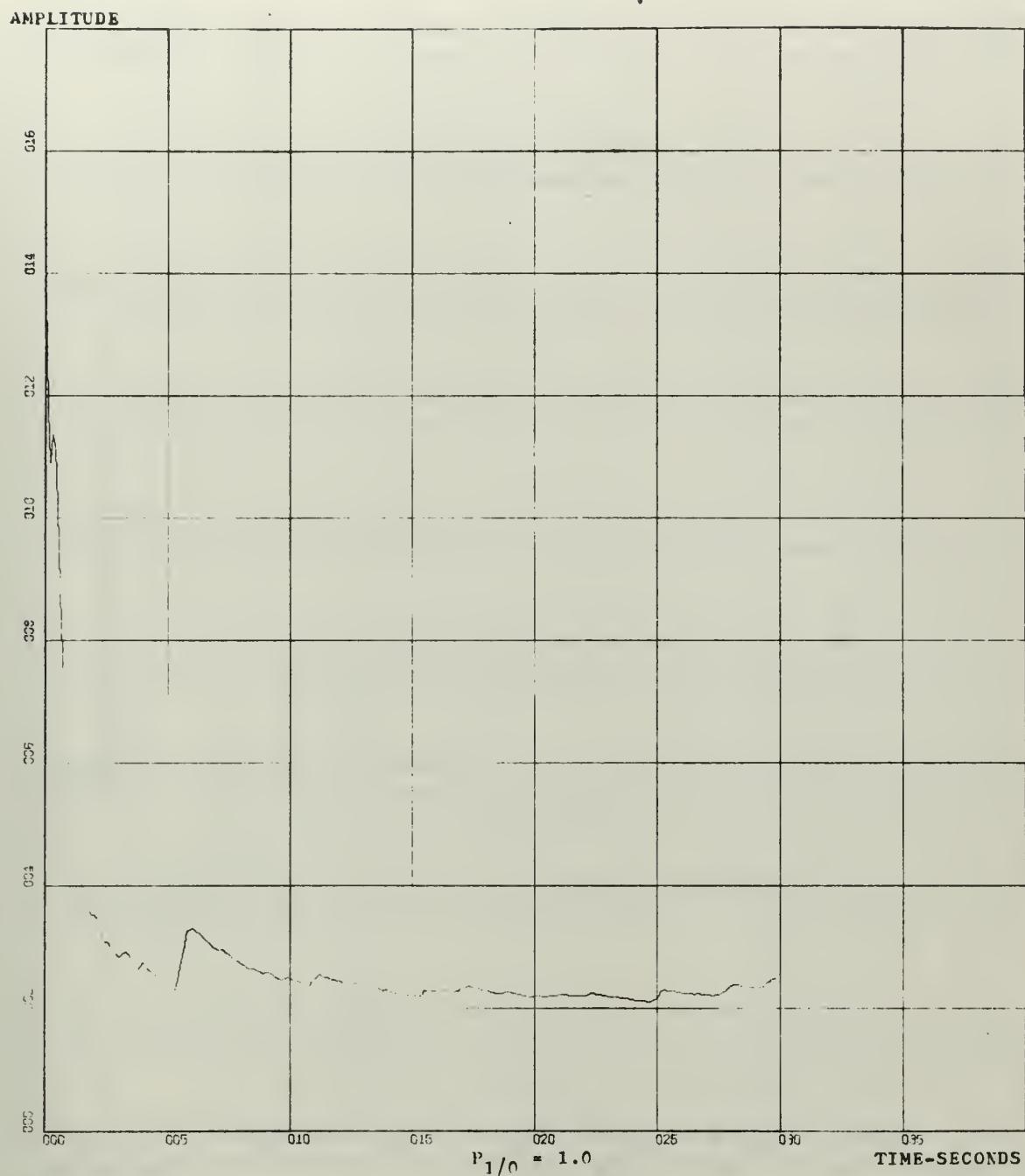


X-SCALE=5.00E+01 UNITS INCH.

Y-SCALE=1.00E-01 UNITS INCH.

KALMAN FILTER M.S.E. VS TIME
FLETCHER H.G. THESIS

FIGURE 26



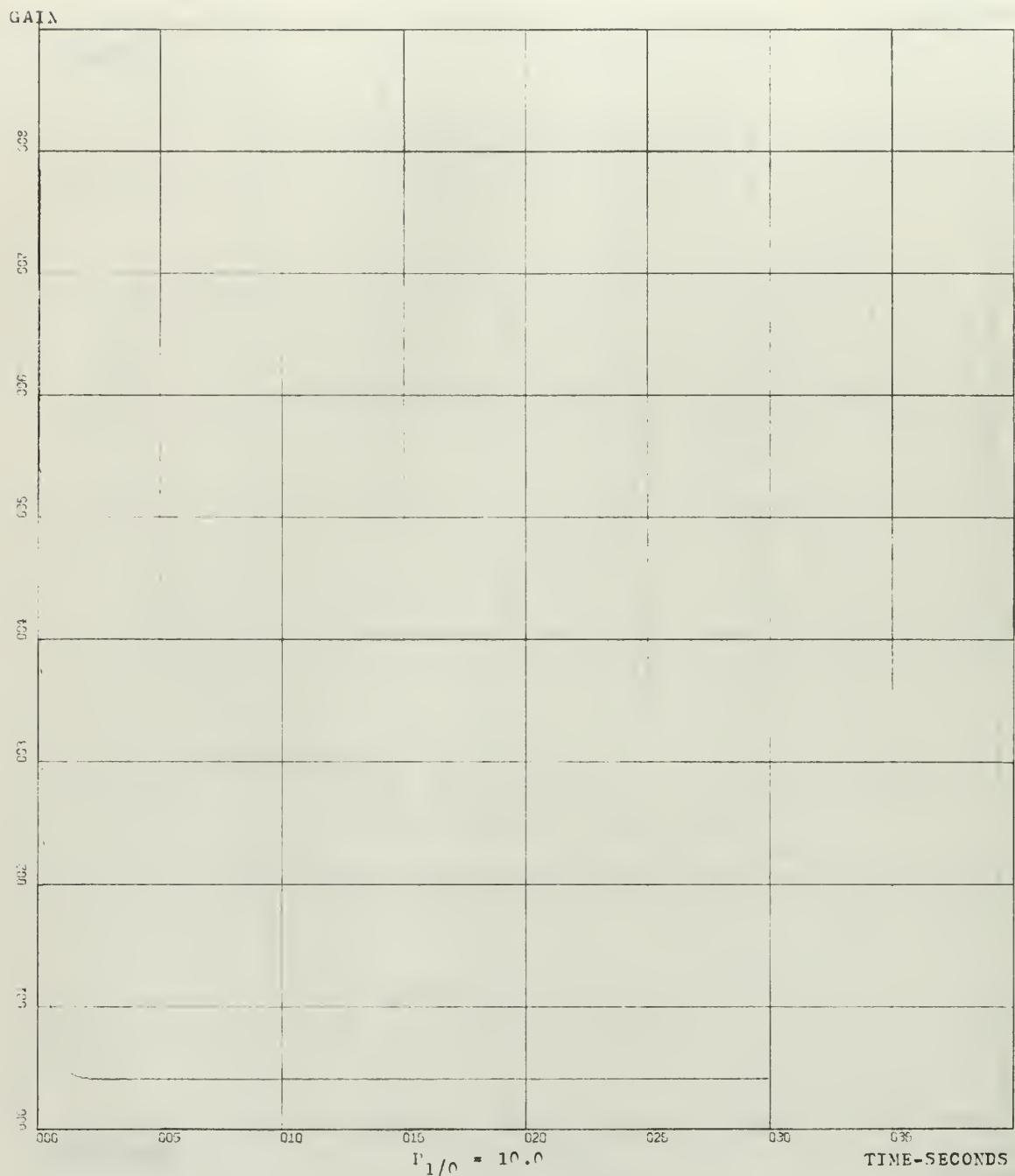
LARGE INITIAL ERROR

X-SCALE=5.00E+01 UNITS INCH.

Y-SCALE=2.00E-01 UNITS INCH.

KALMAN FILTER M.S.E. VS TIME
FLETCHER H.G. THESIS

FIGURE 27



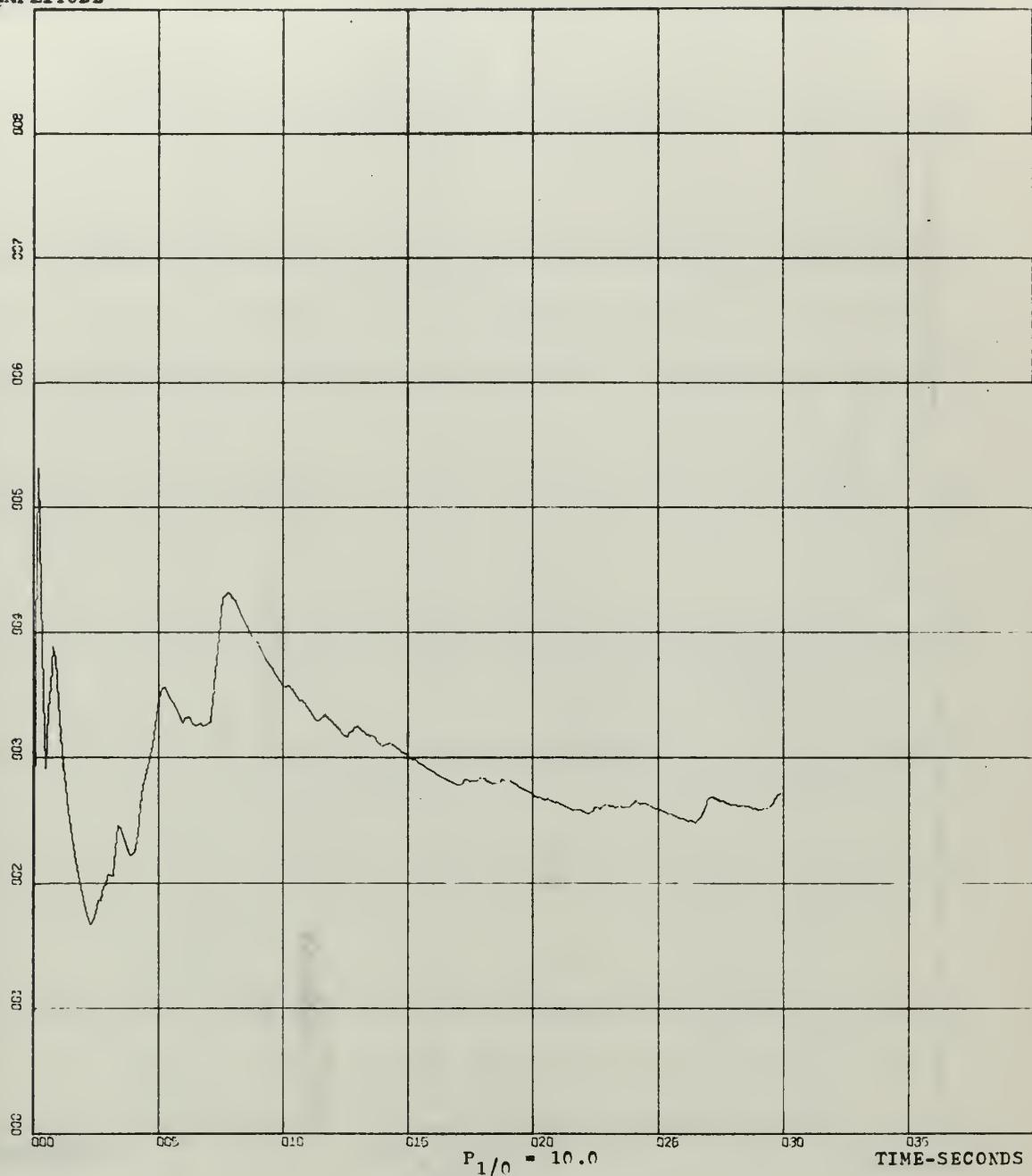
SCALE=5.00E+01 UNITS INCH.

SCALE=1.00E-02 UNITS INCH.

KALMAN FILTER GAIN VS. TIME
FLETCHER H.G. THESIS 1

FIGURE 28

AMPLITUDE



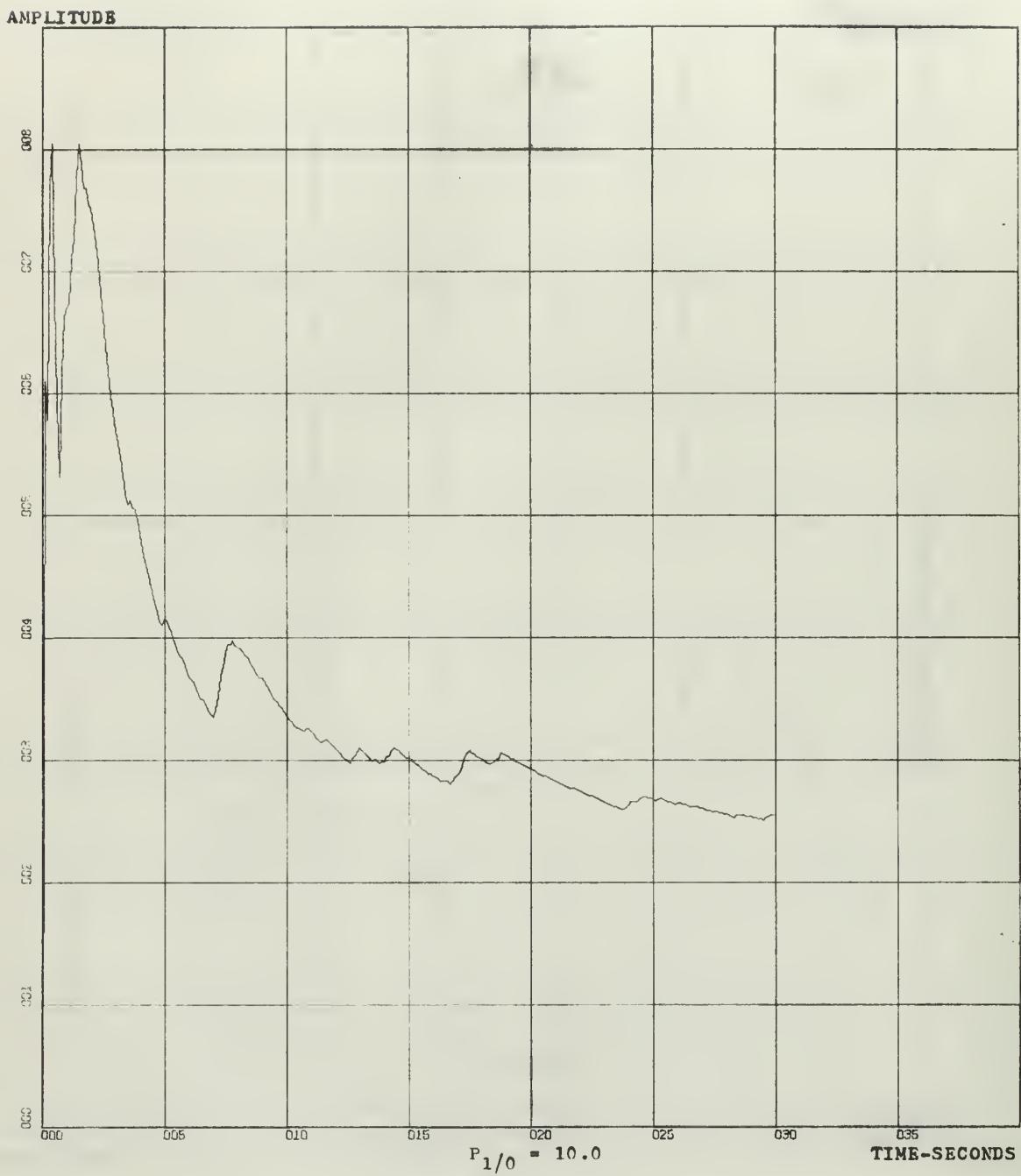
SMALL INITIAL ERROR

X-SCALE=5.00E+01 UNITS INCH.

Y-SCALE=1.00E-01 UNITS σ CALE=1.00E-01 UNITS INCH.

KALMAN FILTER VARIANCE OF E. VS TIME
FLETCHER H.G. THESIS 3

FIGURE 29



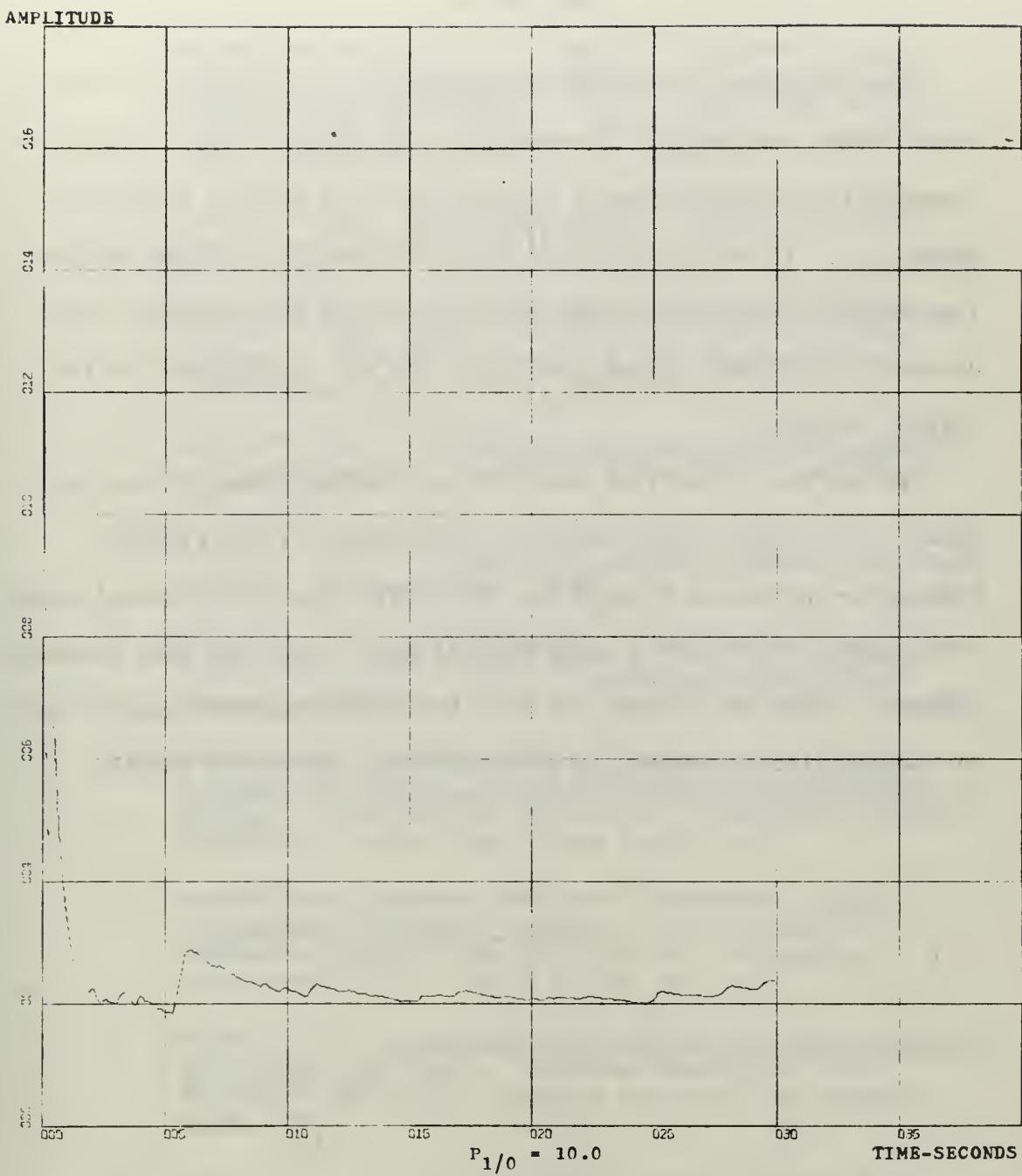
SMALL INITIAL ERROR

X-SCALE=5.00E+01 UNITS INCH.

Y-SCALE=1.00E-01 UNITS INCH.

KALMAN FILTER M.S.E. VS TIME
FLETCHER H.G. THESIS 3

FIGURE 30



LARGE INITIAL ERROR

X-SCALE=5.00E+01 UNITS INCH.
 Y-SCALE=2.00E-01 UNITS INCH.

KALMAN FILTER M.S.E. VS TIME
 FLETCHER H.G. THESIS 3

FIGURE 31

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS

The responses of the discrete Kalman filter for various initial error covariance and the discrete Wiener-Kolmogorov filter have been compared for a non-stationary random input with defined statistical properties. It was necessary to develop a computer program for the simulation of the desired spectrum from a white noise source. The discrete time Wiener-Kolmogorov filter was also programmed for the digital computer.

It has been shown that when the gain of the Kalman filter is equal to its steady state value the performance of the Wiener-Kolmogorov and Kalman filters are identical. For large initial error the Kalman filter (with a large initial gain) shows the best transient response. When the initial error is small the Wiener-Kolmogorov and the Kalman filters respond in an essentially equivalent fashion.

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APPENDIX A

DEVELOPMENT OF THE WIENER-HOPF INTEGRAL EQUATION

The Wiener-Hopf equation gives the relationship between the filter weighting function, the autocorrelation function of the input to the filter, and the crosscorelation function of the filter input with the desired filter output. The problem is described in Figure 1; $x(t)$ is some signal, $v(t)$ is white noise, $\hat{x}(t)$ is the estimate of the signal, and $e(t)$ is the error in estimation; reduce $e(t)$ to a minimum in the mean squared sense by a correct choice of $h(t)$, the impulse response of the filter. The error by definition is:

$$e(t) \stackrel{\Delta}{=} x(t) - \hat{x}(t) \quad (A.1)$$

Squaring both sides yields,

$$e^2(t) = x^2(t) - 2\hat{x}(t)x(t) + \hat{x}^2(t) \quad (A.2)$$

The output, $x(t)$, and the impulse response of the filter, $h(t)$, may be related by means of the convolution integral.

$$\hat{x}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(\tau) x(t - \tau) d\tau \quad (A.3)$$

where τ is the variable of integration. Squaring Eq. A.3 yields

$$\hat{x}^2(t) = \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(\tau) z(t - \tau) d\tau \right] \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(\tau_1) z(t - \tau_1) d\tau_1 \right] \quad (A.4)$$

Substituting Eq. A.4 into Eq. A.2 gives,

$$\begin{aligned} e^2(t) = & x^2(t) - 2 \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(\tau) z(t - \tau) d\tau x(t) \right] + \\ & \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(\tau) z(t - \tau) d\tau \right] \left[h(\tau_1) z(t - \tau_1) d\tau_1 \right] \end{aligned} \quad (A.5)$$

By definition, the mean square error is,

$$\overline{e^2(t)} \triangleq \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T e^2(t) dt \quad (A.6)$$

Substituting Eq. A.5 into Eq. A.6 yields:

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{e^2(t)} &= \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2(t) dt - 2 \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T dt \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H(\tau) z(t - \tau) x(t) d\tau \\ &+ \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T dt \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H(\tau) z(t - \tau) d\tau \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H(\tau_1) z(t - \tau_1) d\tau_1 \right] \end{aligned} \quad (A.7)$$

The definition of the input autocorrelation function is

$$\varphi_{zz}(\tau) \triangleq \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T z(t) z(t + \tau) dt \quad (A.8)$$

Similarly, the crosscorrelation function between the input and the output is

$$\varphi_{zx}(\tau) \triangleq \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T z(t) \hat{x}(t + \tau) dt \quad (A.9)$$

and the autocorrelation function of the output is,

$$\varphi_{xx}(\tau) \triangleq \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T \hat{x}(t) \hat{x}(t + \tau) dt \quad (A.10)$$

Now, making use of the correlation functions, and interchanging the order of integration in Eq. A.7 yields,

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{e^2(t)} &= \varphi_{xx}(0) - 2 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H(\tau) \varphi_{zx}(\tau) d\tau + \\ &\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H(\tau) d\tau \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H(\tau_1) \varphi_{zz}(\tau - \tau_1) d\tau_1 \end{aligned} \quad (A.11)$$

To determine the system function that minimizes the mean square error, assume that a solution exists and denote this solution as $H_m(t)$. Now construct a weighting function:

$$H(t) = H_m(t) + \delta H_\delta(t) \quad (A.12)$$

where $H_m(t)$ is the assumed solution, $H_\delta(t)$ is any arbitrary realizable weighting function, and δ is a parameter which may be varied to test whether $H_m(t)$ is the solution. The construction is such that at δ equal to zero, the derivative of mean square error with respect to δ must be equal to zero. By setting this derivative equal to zero for δ equal to zero, a condition for $H_m(t)$ which must be satisfied in order for it to be a solution, is specified.

Substituting $H(t)$ as given by Eq. A.12 into Eq. A.11 and differentiating with respect to δ yields:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{d\delta} \left[\overline{e^2(t)} \right] &= -2 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H_\delta(\tau) \varphi_{zx}(\tau) d\tau + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H_m(\tau) d\tau \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H_\delta(\tau_1) \varphi_{zz}(\tau - \tau_1) d\tau_1 \\ &+ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H_\delta(\tau) d\tau \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H_m(\tau_1) \varphi_{zz}(\tau - \tau_1) d\tau_1 \\ &+ 2\delta \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H_\delta(\tau) d\tau \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H_\delta(\tau) \varphi_{zz}(\tau - \tau_1) d\tau_1 \end{aligned} \quad (A.13)$$

Because of the even property of autocorrelation functions of stationary signals,

$$\varphi_{zz}(\tau_1 - \tau) = \varphi_{zz}(\tau - \tau_1) \quad (A.14)$$

which leads to

$$\begin{aligned}
& \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H_m(\tau) d\tau \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H_{\delta}(\tau_1) \varphi_{zz}(\tau - \tau_1) d\tau_1 \\
&= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H_{\delta}(\tau) d\tau \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H_m(\tau_1) \varphi_{zz}(\tau - \tau_1) d\tau_1
\end{aligned} \tag{A.15}$$

Substituting Eq. A.15 in Eq. A.13 and setting

$$\frac{d \left[\overline{e^2(t)} \right]}{d\delta} = 0 \quad \text{at } \delta = 0$$

yields:

$$2 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H_{\delta}(\tau) d\tau \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H_m(\tau_1) \varphi_{zz}(\tau - \tau_1) d\tau_1 - \varphi_{zx}(\tau) \right] = 0 \tag{A.16}$$

Since $H_{\delta}(\tau)$ is a realizable weighting function, it must be zero for values of t less than zero. The only way that Eq. A.16 can be satisfied for $\tau \geq 0$ is that the factor in the brackets be equal to zero. Thus,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H_m(\tau_1) \varphi_{zz}(\tau - \tau_1) d\tau_1 = \varphi_{zx}(\tau), \quad \text{for } \tau = 0 \tag{A.17}$$

Equation A.17 is the famous Wiener-Hopf integral equation.

Strictly speaking, the $H_m(\tau)$ that satisfies Eq. A.17 produces a stationary value of the mean square error and does not necessarily ensure a minimum. It can be shown that the solution of Eq. A.17 does yield a minimum, by considering the second derivative of the mean square error with respect to δ . Differentiating both sides of Eq. A.13 yields

$$\frac{d^2 \left[\overline{e^2(t)} \right]}{d\delta^2} = 2 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H_{\delta}(\tau) d\tau \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H_{\delta}(\tau_1) \varphi_{zz}(\tau - \tau_1) d\tau_1$$

This is the same as twice the mean square value of the noisy input signal filtered by a weighting function, $H_\delta(\tau)$. Since this mean square signal can never be negative, this shows that the second derivative of the mean square error is always positive, hence the solution of Eq. A.17 corresponds to a minimum.

APPENDIX B

DEVELOPMENT OF THE BODE-SHANNON SOLUTION

Bode and Shannon used frequency domain techniques to solve the filter problem by converting the actual signal power spectral density to that of white noise, and then operating on this white noise signal. The solution may be described by considering Figure 1; $x(t)$ is the signal, $v(t)$ is white noise, $\hat{x}(t)$ is the estimate of the signal, and $e(t)$ is the error. The assumptions are that, (1) input signal and noise are uncorrelated and stationary, and (2) all time functions are Fourier transformable.

The impulse response of the filter, $h(t)$, is chosen on the basis of minimum mean square error. The error signal is defined as

$$e(t) = \hat{x}(t) - x(t) \quad (B.1)$$

and its Fourier transform is,

$$\begin{aligned} E(\omega) &= \hat{X}(\omega) - X(\omega) \\ &= [X(\omega) + V(\omega)] - h(\omega) - X(\omega) \\ &= [h(\omega) - 1] X(\omega) + h(\omega)V(\omega) \end{aligned} \quad (B.2)$$

Since the signal and noise are uncorrelated, the power spectral density of the error is

$$W_e(\omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \left[|h(\omega) - 1|^2 W_x(\omega) + |h(\omega)|^2 W_v(\omega) \right] \quad (B.3)$$

Hence the mean square error is

$$\overline{e^2(t)} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[|h(\omega) - 1|^2 W_x(\omega) + |h(\omega)|^2 W_v(\omega) \right] d\omega \quad (B.4)$$

This is to be minimized by the proper choice of $h(\omega)$.

Note that to obtain a solution, the power spectral densities $W_x(\omega)$ and $W_v(\omega)$ must be specified. Let

$$h(\omega) = C(\omega)e^{j\theta(\omega)}$$

$$= C(\omega) (\cos\theta(\omega) + j \sin\theta(\omega)) \quad (B.5)$$

Substituting into Eq. B.1 and simplifying yields,

$$\overline{e^2(t)} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left\{ C^2(\omega)W_v(\omega) + \left[C^2(\omega) + 1 - 2C(\omega)\cos(\theta(\omega)) \right] \right\} W_x(\omega) d\omega \quad (B.6)$$

Since $C(\omega)$, $W_x(\omega)$, and $W_v(\omega)$ are nonnegative this expression is minimized when $\cos\theta(\omega)$ has its largest value; that is, when $\theta(\omega)$ equals zero. Thus,

$$\overline{e^2_{opt}(t)} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[C^2(\omega) \left(W_v(\omega) + W_x(\omega) \right) - 2C(\omega)W_x(\omega) + W_x(\omega) \right] d\omega \quad (B.7)$$

In order to find the $C(\omega)$ that minimizes this expression, complete the square of the terms in the bracket. Thus,

$$\overline{e^2_{opt}(t)} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[\left(C(\omega) \sqrt{W_v(\omega) + W_x(\omega)} - \frac{W_x(\omega)}{\sqrt{W_v(\omega) + W_x(\omega)}} \right)^2 + \frac{W_x(\omega)W_v(\omega)}{W_x(\omega) + W_v(\omega)} \right] d\omega \quad (B.8)$$

Eq. B.8 is minimized when

$$C(\omega) = \frac{W_x(\omega)}{W_x(\omega) + W_v(\omega)} \quad (B.9)$$

with minimum mean square error given by

$$\overline{e^2}_{\min}(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{W_x(\omega)W_v(\omega)}{W_x(\omega) + W_v(\omega)} d\omega \quad (B.10)$$

Since $\theta(\omega)$ equals zero,

$$h(\omega) = C(\omega) = \frac{W_x(\omega)}{W_x(\omega) + W_v(\omega)} \quad (B.11)$$

The impulse response is therefore given by

$$h(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{W_x(\omega)}{W_x(\omega) + W_v(\omega)} e^{j\omega t} d\omega \quad (B.12)$$

which, in general, does not vanish for $t < 0$. Thus Eq. B.11 is generally not physically realizable.

The minimum phase filter which converts a white noise input to a spectral density equal to that of the signal plus noise, must have a transfer function of magnitude

$$B(\omega) = \sqrt{W_x(\omega) + W_v(\omega)}$$

Since Eq. B.11 gives the best noncausal operation on the signal plus noise, the best noncausal operation on white noise inputs requires that,

$$H_w(\omega) = \frac{W_x(\omega)}{W_x(\omega) + W_v(\omega)} \frac{\sqrt{W_x(\omega) + W_v(\omega)}}{W_x(\omega) + W_v(\omega)} \quad (B.13)$$

This however, is still noncausal. The causal filter is then constructed as follows:

$$g_w(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & , t < 0 \\ h_w(t) & , t \geq 0 \end{cases} \quad (B.14)$$

The desired causal filter for operation on signal plus noise inputs then has a transfer function given by:

$$H(\omega) = \frac{G_\omega(\omega)}{B(\omega)} = G_\omega(\omega) \frac{1}{\sqrt{W_x(\omega) + W_v(\omega)}} \quad (B.15)$$

APPENDIX C

POWER SPECTRAL DENSITY PROGRAM

POWER SPECTRAL DENSITY PROGRAM

FORTRAN IV C LEVEL 0, MOD 0

MAIN

DATE = 67328

18/15/48

```

0001      C  REAL*8 ITITLE(12) INPUT ARRAY TO HARM MUST
0002      C  BE A POWER OF TWO
0003      C  COMPLEX*8 A(1024),1,1)
0004      C  DIMENSION S(1024),INV(1024)
0005      C  DIMENSION M(31,X(4100),B(200),BX(200),TIMEX(200)
0006      KK=1
0007      T=0.01
0008      PIT=6.2831853
0009      QD=1.0/T
0010      DEV=SQRT(QD)
0011      R=1.0/T
0012      DEX=SQRT(R)
0013      PHI=EXP(-T)
0014      GAMMA=1.0-PHI
0015      IX=4C9734751
0016      CALL GAUSS(IX,DEV,0.0,W)
0017      X(1)=GAMMA*W
0018      M(1)=KK
0019      M(2)=0
0020      M(3)=0
0021      N1=2**KK
0022      N2=1
0023      N3=1
0024      DC 2 I1=1,N1
0025      DC 2 I2=1,N2
0026      DC 2 I3=1,N3
0027      C  SIGNAL IS NOW GENERATED
0028      DC 3 I1=1,N1
0029      DO 3 I2=1,N2
0030      DC 3 I3=1,N3
0031      CALL GAUSS(IX,DEV,0.0,W)
0032      X(I1+1)=PHI*X(I1)+W*GAMMA
0033      C  CALCULATE MFAN AND MEAN SQUARE OF SIGNAL
0034      AX=0.0
0035      BZ=0.0
0036      DO 50 I=1,N1
0037      50 AX=AX+X(I)
0038      XBAR=AX/N1
0039      DO 51 I=1,N1
0040      51 BZ=BZ+(X(I)-XBAR)**2
0041      XMS=BZ/N1
0042      WRITE(6,92)XBAR
0043      92 FORMAT(T6,'SIGNAL AVERAGE VALUE = ',T32,E13.6)
0044      95 FORMAT(T6,'MFAN SQUARE SIGNAL = ',T30,E13.6)
0045      C  OBTAIN THE FAST FOURIER TRANSFORM
0046      CALL HARM(A,M,INV,S,1,IFERR)
0047      NX=35
0048      C  NORMALIZE AND PREPARE INPUTS FOR PLOTTING
0049      DC 42 I=1,NX
0050      B(I)=CABS(A(I,1,1))**2
0051      BX(I)=(B(I)*2.0)/(N1*QD)
0052      TIMEX(I)=((I-1)*PIT)/(N1*T)
0053      WRITE(6,63)TIMEX(I),BX(I)
0054      63 FORMAT(T6,E13.6,T20,E13.6)
0055      42 CONTINUE
0056      READ(5,105)(ITITLE(I),I=1,12)
0057      105 FORMAT(6A8)
0058      CALL DRAW(NX,TIMEX,BX,0.0,' ',ITITLE,0.0,0.0,0,0,0,0,0,8,9,1,LA)
0059      END

```

APPENDIX D

WIENER-KOIMGOROV PROGRAM

WIENER-KOLMOGOROV FILTER PROGRAM

FORTRAN IV C LEVEL 0, MOD C

MAIN

DATE = 67330

14/00/57

```

0001      REAL*8 ITITLE(10),XHAT(3100),E(3100),Z(3100),TIME(3100)
0002      DIMENSION EMS(3100),YXX(3100),ES(3100)
0003      N=3000
0004      NA=N+5
0005      IX=4CS734751
0006      T=0.01
0007      QC=1.0/T
0008      DEV=SQRT(QC)
0009      R=1.0/T
0010      DEX=SQRT(R)
0011      EMS(1)=0.0
0012      PHI=EXP(-T)
0013      GAMMA=1.0-PHI
0014      RCT=SQRT(2.0)
0015      XPC=RCT*T
0016      PHK=EXP(-XPC)
0017      GAM8=1.0-PHK
0018      WRITE(6,20)
0019      20 FORMAT(16,'K',T16,'X(K)',T36,'XHAT(K)',T58,'Z(K)',T80,'EMS(K)')
0020      XHAT(1)=0.0
0021      CALL GAUSS(IX,DEV,0.0,W)
0022      X(1)=GAMMA*W
0023
C      GENERATE SIGNAL
0024      DC 10 K=1,NA
0025      CALL GAUSS(IX,DEV,0.0,W)
0026      X(K+1)=PHI*X(K)+W*GAMMA
0027      10 CCNTINUE
C      ADD MEASUREMENT NOISE AND
C      COMPUTE ESTIMATE OF SIGNAL
0028      DC 11 K=1,NA
0029      CALL GAUSS(IX,CEX,0.0,V)
0030      Z(K)=X(K)+V
0031      XHAT(K+1)=PHK*XHAT(K)+GAM8*Z(K)*(1.0/(2.0+ROT))
0032      E(K)=XHAT(K)-X(K)
0033      11 CCNTINUE
0034      KT=2
C      COMPUTE MEAN AND MEAN SQUARE ERROR
0035      DO 85 K=1,N
0036      YA=0.0
0037      YB=0.0
0038      DC 25 I=1,KT
0039      YA=YA+F(I)
0040      25 CCNTINUE
0041      YBAR=YA/KT
0042      DC 26 I=1,KT
0043      YB=YB+(E(I)-YBAR)**2
0044      26 CCNTINUE
0045      EMS(K+1)=YB/KT
0046      KT=KT+1
0047      WRITE(6,30)K,X(K),XHAT(K),Z(K),EMS(K)
0048      30 FORMAT(2X,I4,5X,E13.6,9X,E13.6,9X,E13.6,9X,E13.6)
0049      85 CCNTINUE
C      PREPARE ITEMS FOR PLOTTING
0050      DC 7C I=1,N
0051      TIME(I)=I-1
0052      7C CCNTINUE
0053      DC 110 I=1,N
0054      110 ES(I)=E(I)**2
0055      KC=1
0056      NPT=300
0057      DC 43 I=1,NA,10
0058      YXX(KQ)=EMS(I)
0059      43 KC=KQ+1
0060      READ(5,101)(ITITLE(I),I=1,12)
0061      101 FORMAT(6A8)
0062      CALL DRAW(NPT,TIME,YXX,0.0,1,ITITLE,0.0,0.0,0.0,0.0,0.0,8,9,1,LA)
0063      END

```

APPENDIX E

KALMAN PROGRAM

KALMAN FILTER PROGRAM

```

FORTRAN IV-G LEVEL-G, MCD 0 ----- MAIN ----- DATE = 67331 ----- 16/20/48

0001      REAL*8 ITITLE(12)
0002
0003      DIMENSION X(3100), XHAT(3100), E(3100), Z(3100), TIME(3100), EMS(3100)
0004
0005      T=0.01
0006      N=3000
0007      NA=N+5
0008      QD=1.0/T
0009      DEV=SQRT(QD)
0010      R=1.0/T
0011      DEX=SQRT(R)
0012      IX=4C9734751
0013      EMS(1)=0.0
0014      PHI=EXP(-T)
0015      GAMMA=1.0-PHI
0016      XHAT(1)=0.0
0017      Q=GAMMA*(GAMMA*(DEV**2))
0018      P(1)=10.0
0019      NR=NA+2
0020      C  GENERATE GAIN SEQUENCE
0021      DO 57 K=1,NR
0022      G(K)=P(K)/(P(K)+R)
0023      PK(K)=(1.0-G(K))*P(K)
0024      57 P(K+1)=PHI*P(K)*PK(K)+Q
0025      WRITE(6,20)
0026      20 FORMAT(T6, 'K', T13, 'X(K)', T32, 'XHAT(K)', T50, 'Z(K)', T70, 'EMS(K)', T90
0027      1, 'G(K)')
0028      CALL GAUSS(IX,DEV,0.0,W)
0029      X(1)=GAMMA*W
0030      C  GENERATE SIGNAL
0031      DO 10 K=1,NA
0032      CALL GAUSS(IX,DEV,0.0,W)
0033      X(K+1)=PHI*X(K)+W*GAMMA
0034      10 CONTINUE
0035      CALL GAUSS(IX,DEX,0.0,V)
0036      Z(1)=X(1)+V
0037      C ADD MEASUREMENT NOISE
0038      C COMPUTE ESTIMATE OF SIGNAL
0039      DO 11 K=1,NA
0040      CALL GAUSS(IX,DX,0.0,V)
0041      Z(K+1)=X(K+1)+V
0042      XHAT(K+1)=PHI*XHAT(K)+G(K+1)*(Z(K+1)-PHI*XHAT(K))
0043      E(K)=XHAT(K)-X(K)
0044      11 CONTINUE
0045      KT=2
0046      C CALCULATE MEAN AND MEAN SQUARE OF ERROR
0047      DO 85 K=1,N
0048      YA=0.0
0049      YR=0.0
0050      DO 25 I=1,KT
0051      YA=YA+E(I)
0052      25 CONTINUE
0053      YPAR=YA/KT
0054      DO 26 I=1,KT
0055      YB=YB+(E(I)-YPAR)**2
0056      26 CONTINUE
0057      EMS(K+1)=YR/KT
0058      KT=KT+1
0059      WRITE(6,27)K,X(K),XHAT(K),Z(K),EMS(K),G(K)
0060      27 FORMAT(2X,14,5X,E13.6,9X,E13.6,9X,E13.6,9X,E13.6)
0061      P5 CONTINUE
0062      C PREPARE ITEMS FOR PLOTTING
0063      DO 70 I=1,N
0064      TIME(I)=I-1
0065      70 CONTINUE
0066      DO 110 I=1,N
0067      110 ES(I)=E(I)**2
0068      KQ=1
0069      NPT=300
0070      DO 43 I=1,NA,10
0071      YXX(KQ)=EMS(I)
0072      43 KQ=KQ+1
0073      READ(5,101)(ITITLE(I),I=1,12)

```

KALMAN FILTER PROGRAM

APPENDIX F

NO FILTER PROGRAM

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Security Classification

DOCUMENT CONTROL DATA - R&D

(Security classification of title, body of abstract and indexing annotation must be entered when the overall report is classified)

1. ORIGINATING ACTIVITY (Corporate author)

Naval Postgraduate School
Monterey, California

2a. REPORT SECURITY CLASSIFICATION

Unclassified

2b. GROUP

3. REPORT TITLE

A Comparative Study of Discrete Time Filtering for a Non-Stationary Random Input

4. DESCRIPTIVE NOTES (Type of report and inclusive dates)

Thesis, Master of Science, December 1967

5. AUTHOR(S) (Last name, first name, initial)

FLETCHER, Harold G., Jr.

6. REPORT DATE

December 1967

7a. TOTAL NO. OF PAGES

91

7b. NO. OF REFS

19

8a. CONTRACT OR GRANT NO.

9a. ORIGINATOR'S REPORT NUMBER(S)

b. PROJECT NO.

c.

9b. OTHER REPORT NO(S) (Any other numbers that may be assigned this report)

d.

10. AVAILABILITY/LIMITATION NOTICES

[REDACTED]

11. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES

12. SPONSORING MILITARY ACTIVITY

13. ABSTRACT

This thesis is concerned with a comparative study of discrete time filters using the theories of Wiener-Kolmogorov, Bode-Shannon, and Kalman, applied to the filtering of a non-stationary random signal in the presence of measurement noise. Programs are developed for the simulation of these systems and signals on a digital computer. Their filtering properties are compared for a random input signal with known steady state characteristics, starting at initial time $t = t_0$. The results show that when the gain of the Kalman filter is equal to its steady state value, the Kalman and Wiener-Kolmogorov filters perform identically. For large initial errors the Kalman filter, with large initial gain, gives the best transient response; for small initial errors the Kalman and Wiener-Kolmogorov filters are essentially equivalent in their transient responses.

14 KEY WORDS	LINK A		LINK B		LINK C	
	ROLE	WT	ROLE	WT	ROLE	WT

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